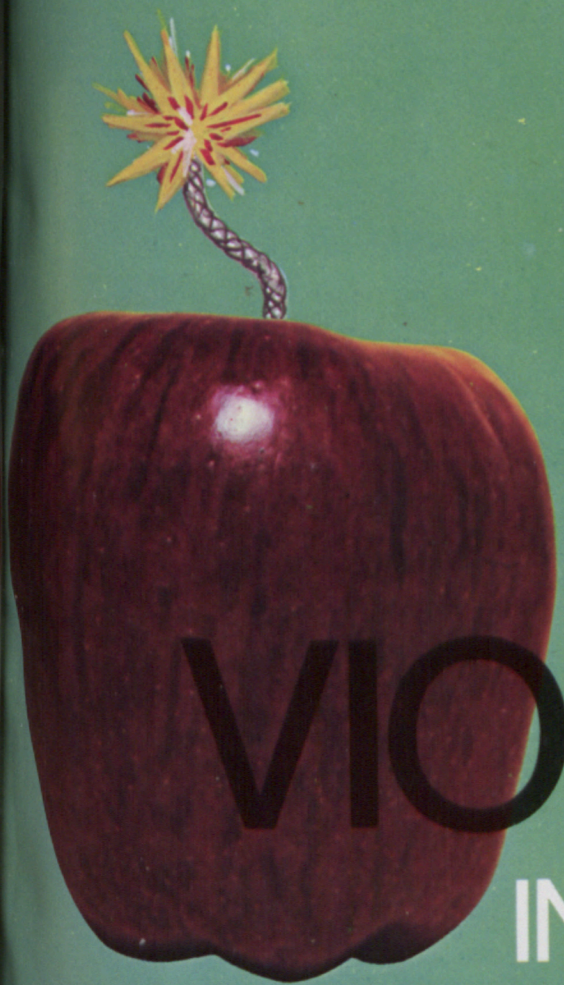
TODAY'S EDUCATION
Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
April-May 1980

GENERAL EDITION



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We're looking for people to write children's books

Writing for children is the perfect way to take up writing, says the author of 53 children's books. Your ideas come right out of your own experience. And while it's still a challenge, it's probably the straightest possible line between you and publication – if you're qualified to seek the success this rewarding field offers.

By Alvin Tresselt, Dean of Faculty

If you want to write and get published, I can't think of a better way to do it than writing books and stories for children and teenagers. Ideas flow naturally right out of your own life. While it's still a challenge, the odds of getting that first unforgettable check from a juvenile publisher are better than they are from just about any other kind of publisher I know.

Later on, you may get other checks from other publishers. But right now, the object is to begin — to break into print — to learn the feeling of writing and selling your work and seeing your name in type. After that, you can decide if you want your writing to take another direction.

But after 30 years of editing, publishing, and teaching (and 53 books) I can tell you this: you'll go a long way before you find anything as rewarding as writing for young readers.

Your words will never sound as sweet as they do from the lips of a child reading your books and stories. And the joy of creating books and stories that young people 'really dig' is an experience you'll never have anywhere else. (In this age of boob tube illiteracy, convenient morality, and plastic values, do you *know of a more important audience?)*

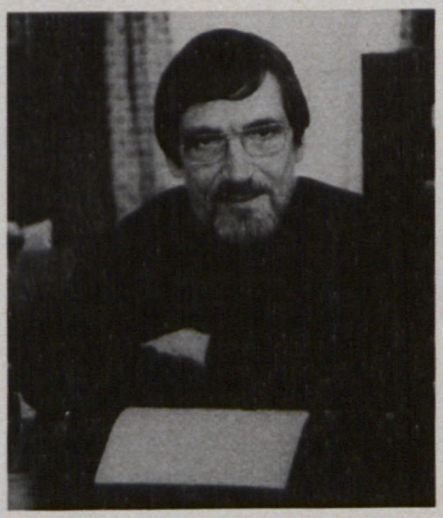
But, that's not all. The financial rewards go far beyond most people's expectations because there's a surprisingly big market out there for writers who are trained to crack it. More than 130 million young people's books are purchased each year. Between 2,000 and 2,500 new titles appear annually and new authors account for as many as half of them.

There are also 250 monthly magazines looking for material for young readers. You can imagine how much writing it takes just to keep them going!

'Am I really qualified?'

Yet two big questions bedevil nearly every would-be writer: "Am I really qualified?" and "How can I get started?"

This is our definition of a "qualified person": It's someone with an aptitude for writing who can take constructive criticism, learn from it, and turn it into a professional performance. That's the only kind of person we're looking for. The reasons are simple: our reputation is built on success, and if prospective students don't have the earmarks of success, we probably can't help them. And we tell them so. It's only fair to both of us.



Alvin Tresselt was Vice President and Executive Editor of Parents' Magazine Press, the first editor of *Humpty Dumpty's Magazine for Children*, and has served on the board of the Author's Guild. His 53 books for young readers have sold over two million copies.

To help us spot potential authors, we've developed a revealing test for writing aptitude. It's free, and we don't charge for our evaluation. But no one gets into the Institute without passing it. Those who pass and enroll receive our promise: You will complete at least one manuscript ready to submit to a publisher by the time you finish the Course.

When we teach, you learn

I've learned a lot about writing for children and I love it. Now I'm passing my knowledge on to my students so they can profit from it. When I'm not writing my own children's books I spend my time at The Institute of Children's Literature, a workshop for writers that does only one thing and does it better than any other school or college or university of its kind: It trains qualified people to write for the young reader.

This is the way I work with my students, and my fellow instructors — all of whom are experienced writers or editors — work more or less the same way.

When you're ready — at your own time and your own pace — you send your assignment to me and I read it and reread it to get everything out of it you've put into it. Then I edit your assignment with a red pencil just the way a publishing house editor would — if he had the time. I return it along with a detailed letter explaining my comments. I tell you what your strong points are, what your weaknesses are, and just what you can do to improve. It's a matter of push and pull. You push and I pull and between us both, you learn to write.

The proof of the pudding

This method really works. I wouldn't spend five minutes at it if it didn't. The proof of the pudding is that many of our students break into print even before they finish the Course.

Kathleen Huber, N.Y., N.Y., writes: "Regarding my sale to *Highlights for Children* for $125, it started out as an assignment for the Institute, and *Highlights* was only the second magazine I had sent it to. Certainly your Course made this sale possible. It may be the best investment I ever made."

A.M. Hummel, Danville, Pa., writes "When *Highlights for Children* accepted my short story — Assignment #8 in the Course, and sent me a $65 check, I could hardly believe it! Then, within a week, I got another check and a go-ahead assignment for a second piece."

'I won first prize of $400 for a Course assignment!'

"Before taking your Course (which I checked out with the National Better Business Bureau), the short stories I scribbled for my two tiny tots never caught an editor's fancy," writes Emily Burns of Salem, Oregon.

"My first sale, to *National Catholic Weekly*, was a Course assignment. Then I submitted another Course assignment in a writer's competition and won first prize of $400!"

Free Writing Aptitude Test offered

To find qualified men and women with an aptitude for writing, the Faculty and Consultants of the Institute have prepared a four-page Writing Aptitude Test. It is offered free and will be professionally evaluated at no cost to you by our staff.

Just mail the coupon below to receive your free Test and 24-page illustrated brochure which describes the Institute, our Course, Faculty, and the current market for children's literature. If you demonstrate a true aptitude for writing, you will be eligible to enroll. But that's entirely up to you.

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The Institute of Children's Literature
Redding Ridge, Connecticut 06876

Dear Mr. Tresselt: **E 70**

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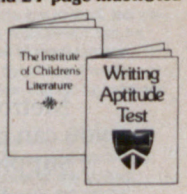

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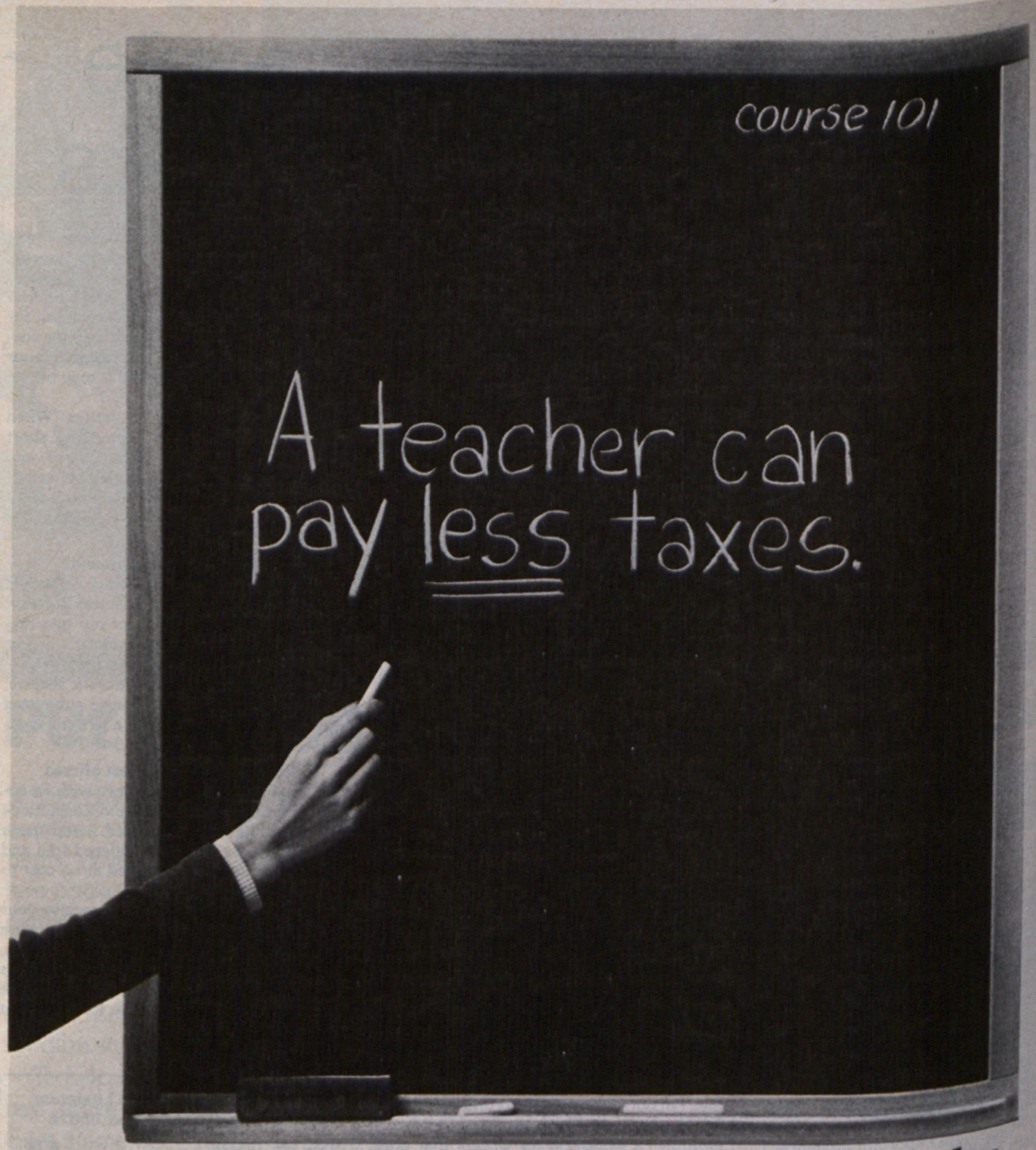

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TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
April-May 1980, Volume 69, Number 2

GENERAL EDITION

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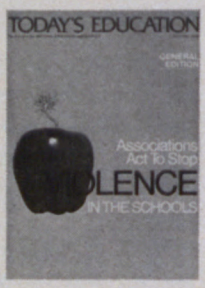
In This Issue

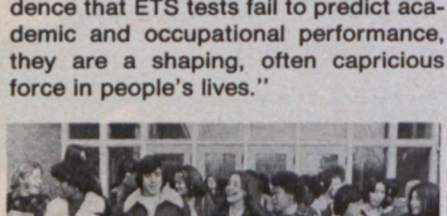


Violence in today's schools! What is its nature? How extensive is it? What is being *done* about it?

This is the subject of this issue's cover and the lead feature in all three editions—general, elementary, and social studies.

NEA President Willard McGuire starts the feature by telling of NEA's concerns and actions regarding this national problem. His article is followed by a discussion of current research on the problem, and the feature concludes with reports about what various education associations are doing to alleviate the situation in their schools.

You'll also find in all three editions another in our series of articles on testing. This one is by Allan Nairn and associates and is a summary of their recent report on the Educational Testing Service for Ralph Nader. After a review of ETS and its tests, including the *Scholastic Aptitude Tests,* the authors conclude, "Though there is persuasive evidence that ETS tests fail to predict academic and occupational performance, they are a shaping, often capricious force in people's lives."



If you received the General Edition, your magazine contains a warning by John Goodlad: "The common school, I fear, fares badly today. Threatened externally by voucher plans and special interests, it has crumbled internally . . . because of our failing to take seriously Bruner's inspiring thesis that '. . . any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development.' "

Goodlad calls for restoring some commonness to the common school in the 1980's, and he says teachers and other educators must lead the way. "I believe that we have little other than ourselves and our own capabilities to fear."

Another article in the General Edition is one by Ethel Heins entitled "From Reading to Literacy." Her thesis is that "we can surely try, through literature, to irrigate the deserts of young minds and to reclaim the wastelands of boredom in which so many children are hopelessly lost."

The multi-page feature in the General Edition deals with Vocational Education and the Handicapped. It tells of handicapped youngsters finding places for themselves in society through vocational education. A New Jersey author answers questions teachers have about integrating the handicapped in vocational classes, and three federal laws that are changing the national outlook for the handicapped are reviewed.

If you received the Elementary Edition, your magazine contains a multipage feature on the Arts and Teaching, designed by our elementary consultant, Monroe Cohen, former editor of *Childhood Education.* Articles in the feature present various approaches to the idea that good elementary teachers "do not confine art periods to Friday afternoons or base writing on phony exercises or treat reading as a series of dull drills. They create, alongside children, a classroom world of aesthetic quality and aesthetic expression."

In one article in this feature, the author calls for classrooms that are studio-workshops amply stocked with materials that invite cross-connections in learning. In another, the author describes an in-service creative arts workshop, which helps teachers recover a childlike freshness of perception and expression.

In another, the author takes us into classrooms where teachers and children explore words and ideas together, deepening their sensibilities and finding their own expressive forms.

In yet another article, the author describes ways to make writing from personal experience a central element in the life of every school. He suggests what a writing-oriented school would be like.

If you received the Social Studies Edition, your magazine includes articles planned by our social studies consultant, Merrill Hartshorn, executive secretary emeritus of the National Council for the Social Studies. The theme of this material is Teaching Global Perspectives and World History in the 80's.

In the first part of the social studies material, the author says, "We need the same kind of intellectual orientation toward teaching about the world that we have toward teaching about the United States. We do not teach about the United States as a motley collection of separate states. Rather, we help students to see the United States as a single, complex society in which they are participants. We need to develop the same approach to teaching about the world—one that helps students to see the world as a single, complex society of which they are inescapably a part."

In another part of this feature, another author, in discussing the teaching of world history, says, "The rehabilitation of the world history course may be just around the corner. A growing percentage of Americans are realizing, albeit reluctantly, that our future is closely tied to events in other parts of the world. As a result, some politicians, business leaders, and educators are calling for courses that increase students' familiarity with other cultures and peoples."

The author believes the exact content of a world history course must be left to teachers, who should keep his proposed guidelines in mind as they develop and organize these courses.

As you read this issue, a readership study is being conducted by Harris Communications to help us plan for future issues. Maybe you are one of the scientifically selected sample and have received a questionnaire. If so, thanks for filling it out and returning it promptly. If you have not been involved in the study, please send us your reactions anyway. We want to know what you think about the specialized editions in particular and the magazine in general.

—WAG.

Trends

Californians Reject Parochiaid and Voucher Plans

Three initiatives to amend the California state constitution to allow state funding of nonpublic schools have failed to get enough signatures to get on the ballot. None came close to gathering the more than 500,000 voters' signatures needed.

One plan would have set up a complicated voucher plan to provide up to $650 million a year to nonpublic schools. A second, sponsored by the National Taxpayers Union, would have set up a tuition tax credit plan; the third plan would have abolished all public education in the state.

Parochiaid and voucher plans lost in all of the 11 referendum votes on the subject in various states between 1967 and 1978.

IQ Test Ruled Illegal for Retardation Screening

IQ tests must not be used to place students in classes for the mentally retarded, a federal district court in California has ruled. The judge made permanent a 1974 injunction against such use of the tests and ordered the state to reevaluate all Black pupils who had been placed in classes for the mentally retarded as a result of the tests.

The case, *Larry P.* v. *Wilson Riles and the State Board of Education,* concerned six Black children who had been placed in classes for the mentally retarded because of IQ test results and then rediagnosed as normal.

NEA President Attacks South African *Apartheid*

NEA President Willard McGuire has called attention to the violations of human rights in South Africa and to what he termed "an ominous trend" in the judicial practices of that country.

Citing the 1979 world report of Amnesty International, McGuire pointed out that the execution of Solomon Mahlangu, a 22-year-old Black man, was the first hanging of a political prisoner since the 1960's.

Amnesty International's 1979 report condemns South Africa for the continuation of waves of detentions, bannings, preventive detentions, indiscriminate arrests, detentions without trial, political trials, holding of prisoners incommunicado for longer than a year, and torture. Most of those affected are Black.

In 1978, according to Amnesty, South Africa hanged 132 persons, all but one of them Black.

College Enrollment May Shrink, Change in Composition

Undergraduate enrollment in U.S. colleges and universities may fall 5 to 15 percent during the next two decades, according to the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education.

By the year 2000, says the Council, student bodies will include "more women than men, as many people over 21 as 21 and under, nearly as many part-time as full-time attendees, and one-quarter of all students will be members of minorities."

The Council is publishing its predictions in *Three Thousand Futures: The Next 20 Years in Higher Education.*

Poor Children in South Lack Social Services

Of 4 million Southern children living at or below poverty level in 1975, fewer than 2 million received cash benefits from Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), and only 2.2 million received Medicaid benefits, according to the federal Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF). In 1977, the average monthly AFDC benefit was $58 per child in the South, $127 outside the South.

Two out of every 5 poor children in this country live in the South. The overall poverty rate among Southern children is 21 percent, says ACYF, while outside the South, it is 13 percent.

White Collar Employment Is Likely To Rise

More than half of the estimated 66.4 million job openings available between 1978 and 1990 will be in white-collar occupations—professional, technical, managerial, sales, and clerical, says the U.S. Department of Labor. Nearly 20 million of those vacancies will be in new jobs, according to the Department's *1980-81 Occupational Outlook Handbook.*

About 55 percent of the jobs will be white collar, 24 percent will be blue collar, 18 percent will be in service occupations, and 2 percent will be in farming.

More scientists, engineers, and technicians will be needed for energy production, mass transportation, and environmental protection; more health workers will be needed; and the rise in family incomes will provide more jobs for cooks, cosmetologists, and other personal service workers.

Nevertheless, 1 in 4 future college graduates will be unable to find work that requires a degree.

Few Go Straight Through College

Only 4 out of 10 entering college freshmen are likely to receive a bachelor's degree from the same institution within four years, according to the American Council on Education (ACE). Three out of 10 probably will never graduate, although others will transfer or return to complete their studies.

Major reasons for dropping out are financial problems, health problems, family responsibilities, and changes in educational goals, says ACE.

Runaway Programs: Who Uses Them?

Most of the teenagers who used federally funded runaway programs in fiscal 1978 were between 14 and 17 years old, and 15- and 16-year-olds used the programs most of all, according to the federal Administration for Children, Youth, and Families (ACYF).

Although a 1976 survey found that only 47 percent of runaways were girls, said ACYF, girls constituted 60 percent of those using the programs. Among the teenagers served, 45 percent had run away, 15 percent had left home by agreement, and 12 percent had been pushed out. Others were living at home and had other problems.

Major reasons given for seeking help were poor communication with a parent, parental strictness, truancy, emotional neglect, and personal emotional problems.

ACYF operates a toll-free hot-line, the National Runaway Switchboard. For information, write Phil Orticke, Youth Development Bureau, ACYF, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, DC 20013.

Researchers Seek Minority Apprentices

The federal Apprenticeship Program for Minority High School Students is to provide at least 1,000 summer jobs this year. Students will work in universities, federal labs, and research centers with scientists and engineers who have volunteered to be sponsors.

Interested high school students or their teachers can get information on the program from the Office of Science and Technology Policy, Old Executive Office Building, 17th and Pennsylvania Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20500.

April 22 Is Earth Day

April 22 is the tenth anniversary of the first Earth Day. In 10 years, the environment movement has grown tremendously and produced major improve-

Trends

(continued)

ments in the quality of life in this country, but much more must be done. Disposal of toxic substances is only one of the problems facing environmentalists now.

For a list of ideas on the celebration of Earth Day in elementary and secondary schools, write Earth Day '80, 1638 R St., N.W., Suite #1, Washington, DC 20009, or call (202) 293-2550.

Schools Cut Energy Use

Energy use in schools dropped 35 percent in the last five years, according to the American Association of School Administrators. Reduced consumption saved taxpayers more than $1 billion last year, "enough to pay 80,000 teachers," said AASA.

Most of the reduction came from changes in operation and maintenance, such as altering buildings and reducing heating and cooling.

Districts with enrollments of more than 5,000 used almost 12 percent less fuel per student than smaller districts, said AASA, probably because they had professional help in cutting their fuel use.

Center for Bilingual Research Opens in California

The National Institute of Education has set up a national Center for Bilingual Research at the Southwest Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development in California. It is the first major federally funded institution devoted to research on teaching and learning in bilingual settings.

The Center will provide an opportunity for researchers, practitioners, and members of bilingual communities to take part in research that can benefit bilingual education. Research will be in language acquisition, language use, and bilingual schooling. The Center hopes the research will provide a means of improving bilingual classroom procedures and materials.

For more information, write Reynaldo Macías at the National Institute of Education, Room 818, 1200 19th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20208.

Treaty To Ease Student Mobility

More than 30 nations have signed a treaty that will ease the movement of students and scholars across national boundaries. The treaty governs mutual recognition of diplomas as valid academic credentials in the nations taking part. It also grants the holders of the diplomas the same rights as people in the host country who hold comparable diplomas.

The treaty will not bind the United States unless the Senate ratifies it. When ratified, it will not bind U.S. institutions to accept any student from another signatory country.

The treaty was signed at a meeting of representatives from UNESCO's European region, which includes Israel, Canada, and the United States, as well as the European nations.

Voting Drive Seeks Students

A voter registration campaign is seeking to increase voter participation among the 3 million young people who will graduate from high school in June. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), sponsor of the drive, hopes to do this by providing greater access to voter registration and a voter education curriculum.

In 20 states, school principals can be designated as voting registrars; elsewhere, NASSP is encouraging local election officials to visit high schools and set up registration programs there.

NASSP's six-week voter curriculum outlines the history of the vote in the United States.

For more information, write the Office of Student Activities, NASSP, 1904 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.

Increases in Public Institutions' Tuition Run Behind Inflation Rate

Average charges for tuition, fees, and room and board at state colleges and universities this year increased at a slower rate than did the Consumer Price Index, according to the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU). AASCU thinks this may be why enrollment at member institutions rose 2 percent instead of declining.

Average total charges for undergraduates who were state residents rose 9.2 percent between 1978-79 and 1979-80, while the Consumer Price Index rose 12.4 percent between September 1978 and September 1979. Average tuition for these undergraduates rose 6.6 percent, while their room and board charges rose 10.4 percent.

Women's Employment, Education Increase

Women's status changed in several important ways in the last decade, reports the Women's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Labor. For the first time, more women worked outside than [illegible] side their homes—51.9 percent in [illegible] tober 1979, up from 43.4 percent [illegible] 1970. During the decade, 2 million [illegible] nority women, 16 percent of all the [illegible] women workers, entered the [illegible] force.

Between 1970 and 1979, wome[illegible] share of managerial and administra[illegible] jobs rose from 16 percent to 25 p[illegible] cent. Among professional and techn[illegible] workers, the proportion of women r[illegible] from 39 to 43 percent; among skil[illegible] craft workers, from 3 to 6 percent.

Women's educational attainme[illegible] came to equal that of their male co[illegible] terparts—12.6 years of school for b[illegible] men and women workers.

College Athletic Aid Must Match Sex Ratio

Colleges and universities must m[illegible] financial aid available to men and wo[illegible] en athletes in proportion to their parti[illegible] pation in athletics programs, accordi[illegible] to Patricia Roberts Harris, who ma[illegible] the announcement last winter as Secr[illegible] tary of Health, Education, and Welfa[illegible] "If 70 percent of a school's athletes [illegible] male, they are entitled to 70 percent o[illegible] the financial aid dollars their schoo[illegible] makes available," Harris explained. Th[illegible]

In determining compliance with Ti[illegible] IX of the Education Amendments o[illegible] 1972, the government will be looking a[illegible] such elements of the athletic program[illegible] as provision of equipment, scheduli[illegible] of games and practices, allocation o[illegible] travel expenses, opportunities to [illegible] coaching, medical and dental service[illegible] and publicity. Teams do not have to b[illegible] integrated by sex, and the same spor[illegible] do not have to be offered to men a[illegible] women.

(For more information on this subje[illegible] see "The Teacher and the Law," whi[illegible] appears in this issue.)

College Freshmen Give Priority to Income

The 1979-80 college freshmen [illegible] more interested in making money a[illegible] being financially well-off than any oth[illegible] entering class in recent years, accor[illegible] ing to the fourteenth annual survey [illegible] entering freshmen conducted by t[illegible] University of California at Los Angele[illegible] and the American Council on Educa[illegible] tion.

"Being very well-off financially" is [illegible] very important goal in life, reported 62 [illegible] percent of freshmen this year as com[illegible] pared to only 43.5 percent of freshme[illegible] in 1967. A very important reason f[illegible] deciding to go to college was "to b[illegible] able to make more money," said 65 [illegible] percent in 1979, 49.9 percent in 1971

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The Teacher as a Consumer

Bargain Air Fares

By THEODORE O. CRON
Professor of Consumer Journalism, George Washington University, Washington, DC; Former Consumer Education Coordinator for the Federal Trade Commission.

Low-cost air travel is here, thanks to airline "deregulation." Or perhaps it may be more accurate to say "lower cost air travel than would otherwise have been the case"—considering the periodic fare increases made necessary by rises in fuel prices. At any rate, old-fashioned marketplace competition has pretty much replaced government rules on fares. But it won't provide a bargain automatically to the traveler who overlooks the subtleties of shopping for low-cost air fares.

If you're thinking about a bargain vacation during the summer holidays, start planning now, for the key to competitive air fares is *time*. You can have your pick of low fares if you plan far enough in advance—up to 60 days at least.

First, whether you consult a travel agent or the airlines themselves (on their "800" WATS-line numbers if they do not have ticket offices in your locality), get as much information as you can. Check with at least three and in some big cities, as many as seven different airlines. Don't overlook the smaller regional airlines; some of them have the most competitive fares available. This first round should give you a sense of the "market" between or among the destination points of your trip.

Dollars alone, however, should not be the sole criterion for choosing a flight. A few airlines, for example, try to divert passenger traffic to less crowded, often out-of-the-way terminals where their airport costs are lower. Make sure you know and can take advantage of the airport location (and flight time) before you pay for a discounted fare. Otherwise, the taxi fare to the airfield may wipe out what would otherwise be savings in air fare.

Often travelers have last-minute complications that involve changes in their travel plans. Remember that most airlines will not transfer special low-cost fares from your original flight to another one and that in some cases, there may be cancellation penalties on discount fares. Ask an agent what the airline's policy is regarding such a change in your travel plans.

An airline ticket is a contract: The line will provide a specified travel service for the sum you paid. If you get what you believe is a bargain fare, pay for it as soon as you can. If there is a rise in that particular fare before the date of your flight—and there may be, considering the continuous increases in fuel prices—you will generally not be asked to pay the difference: Your contract has been reserved and paid for.

But what is the best method of payment? Cash and credit card payments are the simplest to undo if you have to cancel. In either case, you must return the unused ticket to the airline's ticket agent. If you paid cash, the agent can usually give you an immediate cash refund. If you paid by credit card, the agent will have an offsetting credit equivalent to the price of your ticket applied to your account. Remember, if you string out repayment on a credit card after you've been billed, you may be paying 18 percent interest per year on the unpaid balance—and negating the bargain you received on your air fare.

If you paid by personal check, your refund request may have to be processed through the airline's headquarters, a process that may take several weeks. In this case, your refund would probably be mailed to you.

If you are not canceling but just switching flights, make sure the value of your old ticket is applied to your new purchase and, if you're using a credit card, that the agent only writes up a slip for the difference in cost (either a credit or an additional charge). If you don't insist on this, you may end up with *two* sets of tickets charged to you.

In the scramble to fill seats on all flights, most airlines overbook. It's almost a mathematical certainty that some people will cancel out on each flight. Airline personnel at the check-in counter usually know when a flight has been oversold. If, just prior to takeoff, they see that the "shows" are outnumbering the seats, they will offer passengers the chance to be bumped voluntarily for compensation. The amount of compensation is negotiable.

Before you volunteer for "bumping pay," make sure the next flight with a *confirmed* reservation is acceptable to you. If you have a bargain fare, make sure you won't lose it by staying behind. Don't settle for standby or waiting-list status; you may never leave the airport. And if the next flight is the next day, find out if the airline will pay for meals, a phone call or telegram, and overnight accommodations. If it won't, your "bumping pay" may be quickly eaten up by the essentials.

If you are involuntarily bumped, the airline is required to give you a written statement of its policy and the full price of your ticket up to a maximum of $200. If you must wait more than two hours (four hours for international flights), you will receive instead *twice* the price of your ticket. You *keep* your original ticket to use on your eventual flight or for a refund if you never get off the ground.

Involuntary bumping can cost you more than twice the price of your ticket. missed prepaid sports events or tours, canceled prepaid hotel reservations, missed lectures or classes related to your continuing education. Some of these may qualify as "consequential damages" you'll want to collect from the airline; others may not be claimable. If you intend to pursue an involuntary bumping complaint because you believe the costs to you far outweigh the ticket compensation offered, don't cash the check the airline gives you. If you do cash it, you will probably forfeit your chance to negotiate a larger payment or to sue for consequential damages later.

That's right—sue. Most complaints against airlines involve tickets, baggage, service, or flight delays and can be negotiated to a settlement with the line's consumer complaint department. But if you can't get satisfaction, you can usually sue in small claims court. Any airline that authorizes at least one agent to sell its tickets in your state can be sued in your state's small claims court.

Another friend of the airline passenger is the Civil Aeronautics Board (CAB)—at least until 1985, when it may go out of business. For help or more information, contact the nearest CAB field office (Anchorage, Alaska; Seattle, Washington; Los Angeles; Fort Worth, Texas; Miami, Florida; New York; Boston; Des Plaines, Illinois) or write the Bureau of Consumer Protection, CAB, Washington, DC 20428. □

NEA Special Services has developed a *Complete Travel Guide for Educators*. The 48-page booklet is available free to members while supplies last. To obtain a copy, write Travel Guide, NEA Special Services, Room 404E, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 33

Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Comments on Chris Rogers

I found the interview with Chris Rogers, a teacher who teaches from a wheelchair, of considerable interest ("Meet Chris Rogers," February-March).

Clearly, she and I have much in common. While we have never met, I know that she knows as thoroughly as I that nothing is more important than helping others to use fully all their capabilities. We both have had to overcome handicaps.

Ms. Rogers, I salute you.

—Max Cleland, *administrator of veterans affairs, Veterans Administration, Washington, DC.*

Editor's Note: Mr. Cleland, who lost both legs and his right forearm in the Vietnam war, is the youngest person to head the Veterans Administration since its inception in 1930.

Ms. Rogers comes across as a capable, dedicated teacher—a professional who cares deeply about her work. As a handicapped person myself, I would like to make several observations about the interview with her.

Ms. Rogers says she needs a full-time aide to help with her class because of her disability, which results from multiple sclerosis. Such accommodation is not necessary for many other disabled teachers. It is important that school officials who may work with handicapped teachers not presume that all of them will need the same accommodation. Doing what is necessary in each situation is what is important.

Ms. Rogers says she is not involved in civil rights groups for the handicapped. She says, "I try to relate to most people on a daily basis, and I don't identify with other handicapped people." Many of us disabled people, however, are committed deeply to civil rights efforts that will enable us to travel about freely and create better societal attitudes toward us. There is a time for us to identify with other disabled people and a time for us to identify with the larger human family of which we are a part. At the present time, the solidarity of handicapped people is necessary.

In the introduction to the interview, the interviewer refers to Ms. Rogers as being a "victim" of multiple sclerosis. I feel it is preferable to refer to someone as "having" a disability or disorder such as multiple sclerosis, rather than as being a victim of it. *Victim* has extremely negative connotations of helplessness, dependency, and inability—all of which are misleading.

—Lynn Park, *chief, Public Contact Group, Office of Communications, The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, DC; former NEA staff member.*

How fortunate that Ms. Rogers' colleagues and students are learning firsthand that her physically handicapping condition does not make her a less sensitive or less capable teacher than she would be if she had no handicap.

Congratulations to the administration that recognizes a good teacher and makes accommodations so she can continue to be an asset to the profession.

—Vicki Woodburn, *resource teacher for the acoustically handicapped, Lincoln (Nebraska) Public Schools.*

Testing and the Truth

State Senator Kenneth P. LaValle's article, "Truth in Testing" (February-March) is an excellent explication of the law he introduced in New York State and the rationale behind it.

One possible outcome of this new law is that test takers might now take issue not simply with computer errors, but with the validity of the "right" answers themselves. Supposedly "correct" answers might, in fact, turn out to be debatable.

Researchers have long pointed out ambiguities in test questions, particularly in the areas of vocabulary and language. The corollary of this is that the ability to choose the "correct" answer is not fully the result of superior logic and training but also the result of initiation into the world of testing.

Once students (and their teachers) can see their own answers juxtaposed with "correct" ones, they will have a new option: to disagree with those answers. This could be both administratively complicating and educationally useful. Questioning "right" answers is and always has been a basic educational activity.

—Brenda S. Engel, *co-director, Program Evaluation and Research Group, Lesley College, Cambridge, Massachuetts.*

Shortened School Day for First Graders?

Having taught kindergarten for four years and first grade for 10 years, I read Ben Brodinsky's article, ("A Shortened Day for First Graders?" February-March) with great interest.

As the article points out, young children who have been in school all morning do tire by early afternoon. I doubt, however, whether many of them would rest or engage in constructive activities if they were dismissed early.

Teachers can create a pleasant, positive atmosphere all day in the first grade classroom. The last hour and a half of the school day can be spent in less demanding and less structured activities than the first hours of the day. These activities could include arts and crafts, field trips, experiments, discussions, puppet plays, and cooking.

Time spent under the guidance of an instructor is more valuable to a first grader than unstructured free time.

—B. Colleen Putnam, *first grade teacher, Grant Elementary School, Albia, Iowa.*

Teens and Work

Christopher Johnson's article (February-March) asks, "Schools and Work: Do They Ever Mix?" I am a teenager who believes they do.

Mr. Johnson says many students use jobs as excuses for poor study habits and spend their paychecks as soon as they get them. Although I agree with these points to some extent, I feel Mr. Johnson overly stresses them.

Although he mentions some positive effects of part-time jobs, he puts no emphasis on them. He doesn't emphasize, for example, how having worked for money can make a teenager think carefully about spending it, or how having a part-time job can strengthen the sense of responsibility in a student.

According to Mr. Johnson, the real key to whether a job has a positive or negative effect on a student is the attitude of that student's parents and teachers. I disagree. It is the student's own attitude that is most important.

A student can use a job as an excuse not to study or he can work hard at both his job and his schoolwork. If he works hard at both, he will probably be successful at both.

—Annie Ballantine, *ninth grader, Western Junior High School, Bethesda, Maryland.*

(continued on page 78)

Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

How do the audio, visual, and pacing elements of television viewing affect children?

The authors examine how these elements of television affect children's attention, comprehension, and social behavior. They find that the elements that attract and hold children's attention most effectively are nonverbal auditory techniques (sound effects, peculiar voices), action, and frequent changes or rapid pace. They tentatively conclude that children's comprehension of content may be increased if the attention-getting elements focus on central rather than incidental content. And they find that high action, fast-paced television segments, even if they do not portray violence, lead to a general state of arousal in children that can lead to increased aggression. The authors stress, however, that a general state of arousal may also lead to increases in appropriate or prosocial forms of behavior if these are better suited to the situation.

Most reviews of research on the effects of television on children report contradictory findings. This review reports a contradictory situation—that is, that television, which has become an integral part of almost all children's lives, must have some kinds of effects (it's been blamed for everything from declining achievement scores to the disintegration of the family), but research can find no strong, dramatic specific effects. Still, classroom teachers need to be aware of the research, simply because television viewing is an important common component of almost every student's background.

See Aletha Huston-Stein and John C. Wright. "Children and Television: Effects of the Medium, Its Content and Its Form." *Journal of Research and Development in Education* 13: 20-30; No. 1, 1979.

Does age of entrance affect school achievement?

Yes, in the early grades. This study found that students who were six years old when they entered school achieved higher in first and fourth grades than did students who were five years old when they entered school. The differences in achievement, as measured by test scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, were found in reading, language, math, and total achievement scores. The same comparison for eighth grade students, however, found significant differences in reading achievement only.

The study used test scores of 17,000 students in grade one, 17,500 in grade four, and 19,450 in grade eight. With samples of this size, small differences in achievement become statistically significant, although they may not be significant in an educational sense. For example, in reading, language, and math, the pupils who started school at age six scored at the 49th, 50th, and 50th percentiles respectively, while those who started at age five scored at the 46th, 46th, and 47th percentiles. It is questionable whether these slight percentile differences reflect an educational problem worth worrying about—especially in those subjects where the differences are not reflected in eighth grade scores.

See B. Glen Davis, C. Scott Trimble, and Denny C. Vincent. "Does Age of Entrance Affect School Achievement?" *Elementary School Journal* 80: 133-43; No. 3, January 1980.

Do children of very young mothers achieve less in school than children of older mothers?

No, according to this study that compared the school performance of 157 eight-year-old Black children born to mothers 15 years of age or younger to the performance of 157 eight-year-old Black children born to mothers who were 20 to 24 years of age. The two groups were matched for socioeconomic status.

No significant differences between the two groups were found in academic achievement, behavior and social adjustment ratings, or school cumulative record data. The study examined these variables for the first three years of schooling.

This study illustrates that research which finds no differences can be of interest. Research on effects of schooling is genuinely hampered by the pervasive effects of student background. This study removes one such background variable from consideration.

See Betty H. Morrow. "Elementary School Performance of Offspring of Young Adolescent Mothers." *American Educational Research Journal* 16: 423-29; No. 4, Fall 1979.

Are "memory aid systems" useful in education?

Yes, argues this review of research on visual mnemonics (using visual imagery to aid memorization). The review finds that the use of visual imagery can help students learn sentence structure, vocabulary, prose material, concepts, and foreign languages.

The author argues that memory aid systems are almost never used in schools because educators resist the idea that memorization is an important part of schooling. He points out, however, that learning basic facts is the first minimum requirement of students in schools, and improvement in memorization would help students learn basic facts more easily so they could then proceed toward higher educational goals, such as critical thinking.

See Kenneth L. Higbee. "Recent Research on Visual Mnemonics: Historical Roots and Educational Fruits." *Review of Educational Research* 49: 611-29; No. 4, Fall 1979.

How can teachers make homework a more effective learning experience?

This article classifies types of homework assignments and provides guidelines to help teachers make the assignments more effective for student learning.

The authors point out that research neither supports nor refutes the idea that homework improves achievement. If teachers give homework, however, they argue, the assignments should follow some prescribed rules.

Teachers should first determine the purpose of an assignment. *Practice* assignments should help students master basic skills that have already been presented in class. *Preparation* assignments should help students benefit from subsequent lessons (e.g., define vocabulary terms that will be used in the next lesson). *Extension* assignments should ask students to use a new skill or concept in a new situation (e.g., after having learned the causes of the French Revolution, students could compare these to the causes of the American Revolution). *Creative* assignments should ask students to integrate many skills and concepts (e.g., a book report or research project).

The authors also provide a set of criteria that all homework assignments should meet. Assignments should be

related to learning outcomes that students perceive as meaningful; should minimize demands on student and teacher time, but yield maximum benefits; should be clearly and thoroughly described; and should be within the ability range of all students in the class.

See Jackson F. Lee, Jr., and K. Wayne Pruitt. "Homework Assignments: Classroom Games or Teaching Tools?" *The Clearing House* 53: 31-35; Fall 1979.

Does classroom seating arrangement affect student behavior?

Yes, according to two well-designed studies reported in this article. In the first study, 17 second grade children sat facing each other at 4- and 5-person tables for 10 days and then in rows of 4 or 5 desks for the next 10 days. They returned to the tables for 7 more days, and to the rows for a final 7 days. During the entire 34 days, observers recorded their study behavior on a number of dimensions and developed an overall measure of their study level.

The results showed that average study levels for each time period were as follows: at tables (10 days), 60 percent; in rows (10 days), 82 percent; at tables (7 days), 63 percent; and in rows (7 days), 83 percent. Plainly, the students showed much better study behavior when seated in rows than when seated at tables.

The second study employed a similar design with a classroom of 32 seventh grade students. They sat at tables for 5 days, in rows for the next 10 days, and at tables again for the last 5 days.

This study, however, measured the number of "talk-outs" (audible, verbal sounds students made without the teacher's permission) the class made each day. During the first 5 days at tables, talk-outs averaged 58; during the 10 days in rows, they averaged 30; and during the last 5 days at tables, they averaged 50. Seating in rows resulted in an obvious decrease in inappropriate student behavior—in this case, talking out.

In my view, three points should be emphasized when interpreting these results. First, the study design is a strong one in psychological research, which in general provides results that can be attributed to the treatment factors examined and not to other causes. In other words, seating arrangements almost certainly account for the measured differences in behavior.

Second, the reader should recognize that the measured behavior occurred during two instructional modes—teacher-directed instruction and individual seatwork—in which interaction of students is not appropriate. Seating students in rows structurally prohibits such interaction much more effectively than seating students at tables where they face one another.

Third, neither study links the behavioral results to increased academic achievement. Improved study behavior and less talking out may be factors influencing achievement, but these studies do not make the linkage empirically; consequently, it cannot be assumed.

See Saul Axelrod, R. Vance Hall, and Ann Tams. "Comparison of Two Common Classroom Seating Arrangements." *Academic Therapy* 15: 29-36; No. 1, September 1979.

How can teachers use "time-out" procedures with disruptive students?

This article defines what "time-out" procedures are and describes three approaches that teachers can use to help disruptive students in the classroom.

The basic premise of time-out is that it is a way to deal with disruptive behavior without hostile or punitive retaliation. The authors describe three approaches: the behavioral approach (establishing a period of time during which the student is deprived of the rewards of being among his or her classmates); the cooling-off approach (allowing a student to remove himself or herself voluntarily from a stressful situation and providing adult help during the period of removal); and the modified approaches, which include various modifications of the first two approaches.

The authors identify a series of critical steps that are required in using the time-out approaches: identify the serious behavior, designate a specific area for time-out, immediately place or provide for the placement of the pupil in the designated area, monitor the actual time spent in time-out, return the student to the usual class routine as soon as possible, and evaluate the effect of the time-out procedure, including maintenance of records showing frequency and duration.

See M. Katherine Grayson, John Kinaly, Jr., and Archie J. McKinnon. "Using Time-Out Procedures with Disruptive Students." *The Pointer* 24: 74-81; No. 1, Fall 1979.

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Retirement for Teachers

About three-fourths (76 percent) of public school teachers support the concept of Social Security, even though less than one-half (46 percent) feel that coverage under the U.S. system should be mandatory for all employed taxpayers. Three-fourths (75 percent) believe that homemakers should have the option of purchasing Social Security coverage. Teachers in the Northeast are more likely not only to support the concept of Social Security, but also to want coverage mandatory for all employed taxpayers and optional for homemakers.

These are some of the results of NEA Research's latest Teacher Opinion Poll. The Poll, completed in the spring of 1979, questioned more than 2,000 public school teachers.

Although most of the respondents had an opinion about the kind of retirement benefits that were best for them, about one-half said they had not studied the benefits they would get upon retirement. Of those who had studied their prospective benefits, two-thirds said they were *not* satisfied with them.

More than one-half (56 percent) of all respondents said they contributed to both a teacher retirement system and Social Security, while 40 percent said they contributed to the former only.

About one-half would prefer to contribute to both a teacher retirement system and Social Security, more than one-fourth preferred a teacher retirement system only, and about 2 percent preferred Social Security only. The rest had no opinion. Compared to their colleagues in the Middle West and West, teachers in the Northeast and Southeast were more likely to prefer a combination of a teacher retirement system and Social Security. In addition, they were more likely to say that both systems were available to them.

Almost one-half (46 percent) of all respondents feel the federal government should use general tax revenues to subsidize the cost of Social Security, although almost one-third feel it should not. About one-fourth had no opinion.

Two-fifths (41 percent) would like to have a national retirement plan for teachers; one-third said it's not necessary.

—NEA Research.

The Teacher and the Law

Title IX and School Sports

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments was passed to ensure equal treatment of males and females in educational institutions that receive federal funding. While the statute's most notable result thus far may be the increase in the number of women entering "male" fields such as medicine, law, and management, the greatest publicity and controversy surrounding it have come from activities outside classrooms and study halls. For when the law ordered the end of male domination, it turned out that the most sacred turf on campus was not the library or laboratory but the football field.

Colleges and male athletic groups balked at the idea of male athletes' sharing facilities and money with female athletes. They were especially concerned about the possible loss of funds for football teams. Football, a major money-eater in many athletic programs, was not just another sport, they charged, but an American institution. One defender of the status quo reportedly explained that the question was not limited to funds and facilities for men and women but for men, women, and football players.

In 1975, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued regulations to implement Title IX in athletics. The regulations called for equity for men and women athletes in scholarships, equipment, facilities, coaching, and other components of sports programs.

They said that schools could sponsor sex-segregated teams where the sport was based upon "competitive skill" or the activity was a "contact sport." However, a member of a sex whose opportunities in a particular sport previously had been limited could try out for the school team if the school sponsored only one such team and the activity was "noncontact." Contact sports were defined as "boxing, wrestling, rugby, ice hockey, football, basketball, and other sports the purpose or major activity of which involves bodily contact." Institutions were given until July 1978 to comply with the regulations.

Colleges and universities claimed that the regulations failed to provide adequate guidance on how they could comply with the law. Women's organizations charged that Title IX was being ignored in the sphere of college athletics. In response to the confusion, (then) HEW Secretary Joseph Califano issued a draft Title IX Intercollegiate Athletics Policy Interpretation. It was meant to assist institutions, faculty, and students in understanding, and complying with, Title IX. If clarity was the policy's aim, however, it missed its mark.

The policy included a presumption of compliance if per-capita expenditures for male and female athletes were equal and called for substantially equal treatment in "nonfinancial" matters. The policy was riddled with vague, open-ended exemptions that were vulnerable to abuse, however. Also, it appeared from the policy's language that the July 1978 deadline for equally accommodating the athletic needs of male and female students had been indefinitely extended. The National Education Association filed comments urging the closing of the many exemptions and the substitution of more defined rules for the presumption of compliance. NEA expressed its concern that the policy lead to the enforcement, rather than the evasion, of Title IX.

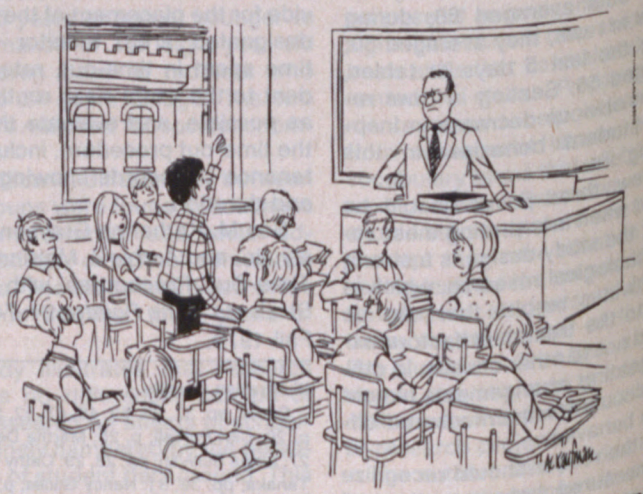
A year later, in December 1979, the new HEW Secretary, Patricia Harris, issued the final Policy Interpretation. It removes any presumption of compliance and substitutes a checklist of criteria. For example, athletic scholarships, benefits, and opportunities must be provided for men and women in proportion to their participation in sports. Items such as equipment, travel expenses, publicity, scheduling of games, and practice times are to be analyzed in some detail qualitatively and, when appropriate, financially. Most of the vague loopholes have been removed in the new policy.

Of particular interest is the expanded discussion of coaching compensation. Equity will be assessed according to "rate of compensation; duration of contracts; conditions relating to contract renewal; experience; nature of coaching duties performed; working conditions; and other terms and conditions of employment."

Schools are also required to "effectively accommodate the interests and abilities" of all their students so that each sex has equal opportunity to participate in athletics. Compliance will be assessed on the basis of the institution's efforts to determine the interests of its students, the selection of sports offered, and the levels of competition available. This portion of the policy still fails to address fully the need to raise the rate of female participation in athletics to the overall ratio of women to the student population.

While women's equity groups were dismayed by the long delay in issuing the policy—and the consequent holdup of processing of these complaints—they were generally pleased by the new direction and content of the policy.

The president of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), Carole H. Mushier, issued a statement that says, "The policies appear to strike a reasonable and workable balance between the legal and moral obligations of institutions to provide equal opportunities for female student athletes and the need to permit



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The Teacher and the Law

(continued)

each institution to design and implement its own nondiscriminatory athletic program."

The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), which represents men's athletics, was less enthusiastic in its response. NCAA assistant executive director Tom Hansen characterized the policies as "quite demanding, quite complicated, and difficult to administer because of their complexity." Hansen was particularly disturbed by the scholarship provision, which, he claimed, failed to "take account of ability."

Regardless of the strength of the language, the policy is only as potent as the enforcement effort of those assigned its implementation, originally HEW's Office for Civil Rights (OCR). This month, these responsibilities will be transferred to the Office for Civil Rights in the new Department of Education. NEA is working with the government to ensure that the policy's language is translated into action that will achieve sex equity in school sports programs.

OCR staff say a series of three meetings will be held regionally to explain the new policy to involved parties. A group of HEW Title IX experts, along with a full-time consultant assigned exclusively to the policy's implementation, will attend all of these meetings. Also, a new investigative manual, based on the policy, is planned for the use of OCR regional field staff.

While the policy does not specifically address the question of secondary schools, an OCR staff member says the policy will cover secondary schools "when applicable." HEW has told women's organizations that administrators and coaches will be sent a memorandum to that effect.

Fortunately, the new Office for Civil Rights in the Department of Education will have greater autonomy and power than its predecessor organization at HEW. The priority allocated Title IX in this office may determine the true effect of the policy.

Some argue that sex equity in school athletics threatens an American tradition, but female athletes argue that a tradition offered to only half our population is not very American.

—Barbara Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 56

VIOLENCE IN THE SCHOOLS

By WILLARD McGUIRE
NEA President.

We have read about the problems for years: disruptions, vandalism, threats, beatings, even murder—and damage that forces taxpayers to spend millions of dollars a year, not to improve our schools but just to repair them and to make them safe.

Newspapers and magazines relate the horror stories: a high school student in Virginia bit off a third of his teacher's ear during a scuffle; a student in Oregon turned his teacher over in a chair during class; a third grader in rural Missouri twisted a teacher's thumb and tore several ligaments; students in California, angry over their low marks, set their teacher's hair on fire, and the teacher was criticized for leaving the classroom when she went to get help.

Shocking incidents occur daily across the country. Ten years ago, the profession and public were concerned about scattered schoolhouse pranks and disturbances; today, they are alarmed about violent crimes.

School vandalism diverts some $600 million annually from education budgets—enough to buy a year's worth of textbooks or pay the salaries of 50,000 more first-year teachers without increasing taxes a nickel. The cost is a crippling strain on financially strapped education budgets.

Stress has become so widespread in teaching that increasing numbers of teachers, especially in urban areas, are leaving the profession.

Teachers cannot teach when they must police.

The problems do not start in the schools, but they wind up there, and they must be dealt with there. Past attempts to deal with the problems have

This feature on "Violence in the Schools" was prepared by NEA Communications staff members, including Marshall O. Donley, Jr., Ben Kittner, and Jane Power.

failed for several reasons. These include lack of coordination of effort by various agencies and groups, lack of willingness on the part of agencies and groups to commit themselves to the long-range programs required to produce any lasting results, lack of funds and resources to carry out programs, and apathy.

One point is clear: Police, parents, and legislators cannot solve the problems alone. Moreover, if they are going to be solved, the Association will have to lead the way.

This *Today's Education* feature includes an article by Francis A. J. Ianni and Elizabeth Reuss-Ianni of Columbia University, which gives statistics on school violence and vandalism and discusses ways changes in the school can reduce these. Other articles in the feature describe teachers' efforts to stop violence, vandalism, and discipline problems in the cities of San Antonio, Texas, and Portland, Oregon, and in the states of New Jersey and Hawaii.

Teachers deal with discipline problems, violence, and vandalism every day. The following articles give evidence that teachers are creating a public awareness and a demand for solutions that will bring about school conditions that are safer and more conducive to learning. □

NEA RESOLUTION ON PROTECTION OF SCHOOL PERSONNEL

The National Education Association and its affiliates shall work together to insist upon development and enforcement of laws that guarantee the safety of educators and other school personnel from physical attacks on their persons or property, and that provide reimbursement for loss. In no event shall time lost due to injury caused by such physical attacks be deducted from the teacher's accumulated sick leave.

The Association will also develop guidelines for action leading to prevention of verbal abuse or harassment of educators and other school personnel by any individuals. Educators must take the responsibility to call attention to such cases so that appropriate action may be taken.

The Association believes that when school personnel are the victims of physical attack, verbal abuse, harassment, or theft, they should receive the full support of their employer in pursuing legal and other remedies.

The Association further believes that the local association must have the right to reflect the concerns of the profession at a student suspension or expulsion hearing.

The Association urges its affiliates to cooperate with juvenile court systems to secure strict enforcement of juvenile law in cases involving disturbances in the public schools.

— Passed by 1979 NEA Representative Assembly.

WHAT CAN SCHOOLS DO ABOUT VIOLENCE

What are the nature and extent of violence and crime in American schools?

- What role do schools themselves play in producing, aggravating, or reducing school crime?
- How can changes in schools, as distinct from changes in society, remedy the problems we seem to be having with social controls?

By FRANCIS A. J. IANNI
Professor of Education and Director of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, and
ELIZABETH REUSS-IANNI
Research Director, Institute for Social Analysis, New York City.

In 1978, we worked on the Safe School Study conducted by the National Institute of Education. This and similar work of ours and of others provide the statistics and examples we use in discussing these questions.

Research indicates that during the sixties both acts of violence and property destruction in schools increased. After the school year 1971-72, both rates leveled off. Most of the studies indicate that assaults on teachers increased from 1956 to 1974 but leveled off thereafter; that robberies

and assaults increased in the early seventies; and that vandalism increased in the mid-sixties and leveled off after 1970 or 1971. The studies do not indicate that the rates of the offenses we call violence and vandalism are currently growing worse.

Some characteristics of communities over which schools have little control seem to be related to higher rates of crime and disruption in schools. For example, the proportion of schools seriously affected by violence declines with community size, from 15 percent in large cities to 6 percent in suburban and 4 percent in rural areas.

It seems clear, however, that schools do not simply reflect community crime rates. In a number of schools we studied, the incidence of school violence and vandalism had declined while crime rates in the schools' immediate communities had soared. In some of these schools, parents reported that they felt their children were safer within the school than outside it. Teachers and administrators in these schools also said they felt safer in the schools than traveling through the surrounding communities.

The role of the school in structuring the disruption which takes place within it is also apparent in the fact that, except for trespassing and breaking and entering, most reported offenses in schools are committed by current students.

Of the characteristics over which schools have some control, the age-grade structure seems to be the one that is the most directly related to the nature and extent of crime in schools. To a lesser extent, it seems that disproportionate racial and ethnic balances in a school can bring victimization of the smaller groups.

Seventh graders are the most likely to be attacked or robbed; twelfth graders are least so; and at age 13, the risks are apparently highest. We believe that moving out of the more protective elementary school context into the less self-contained structure of junior high school is the major factor here.

Most offenses in schools involve victims and offenders of the same race (58 percent). But the fact that 42 percent of offenses are interracial indicates that interracial conflict is a serious problem. The smaller the size of a minority group in the school, the greater the likelihood that members of other racial groups will commit offenses against members of the minority.

Studies have found that a number of other school-specific factors are related to school crime and disorder.

Crowding is one important factor. Schools which had major disruptions in the late sixties and early seventies often had many more students than they were designed to serve. According to many teachers and parents, later reduction of the number of students in these schools was accompanied by a decline in violence and disruption.

In our observations we found that the locations of violence and disruption were usually crowded areas—stairways, hallways, and cafeterias. Many staff told us that control of students was easier in classrooms, where students can be identified as individuals, than in the disorder of the halls and stairs during change of classes.

School size in general is another important factor. Large schools have a higher incidence of and more serious crime and disruption than smaller schools.

In small schools, students are individually identifiable. A number of administrators, teachers, counselors, and security personnel whom we interviewed said that in a small school "there is no place to hide." In some of these schools, the principal knew not only each student but each student's family as well.

In large schools, in the absence of some form of identification, it is impossible to identify outsiders. In schools on split sessions, school personnel can never be certain who is and who is not supposed to be in the building at a given time.

Not only can students be easily identified in small schools, but they are more likely to identify with the school, with other students, and with teachers and to join in the activities and programs of the school. This characteristic, which seems quite close to what was called "school spirit" in an earlier day, is difficult if not impossible to develop in large, urban secondary schools which have 4,000 or 5,000 students.

While school spirit has usually been portrayed as a student characteristic, large school size also reduces the ability of the teachers to relate to students. It thus seems to help cause the considerable apprehension teachers feel in urban schools.

Students unable to identify with a large school as a whole frequently claim control over particular portions of the school and even over "turfs" on the sidewalks outside of the school in much the same way that prisoners set up "courts" or territories in prison yards.

These territorial claims are often based on ethnicity. In these cases, they not only reduce interaction among ethnic groups but are a source of potential conflict.

According to the Safe School Study, classrooms are the safest places, considering the amount of time spent there. Students' risk of violent encounter is greatest during the time between classes, especially in senior high schools. More than half of all thefts, on the other hand, occur during class. Next to classrooms, lockers are the sites of most thefts.

Nationwide, 1 out of 6 secondary school students in the Safe School Study reported avoiding three or more places in school because he or she believed them to be hazardous. When students' uneasiness reaches the limits of tolerance, they stay away from school altogether.

Students who have actually been victims of attack or robbery in schools are more likely than other students to

say that they are afraid both on the way to school and in school. They are also more likely to say that their own grades are low or below average.

Victimized students are likely to be having behavioral problems in school and are twice as likely as others to report having been expelled from another school.

They also are more likely to report that they are punished by their parents if they get into trouble in school. If these perceptions are accurate, both home and school are less supportive and more punitive to students who are victimized than to other students.

Teachers, administrators, and students report that not only do the victims of attack and robbery share many characteristics with students who have been identified as offenders, but they are more likely than nonvictims to be offenders themselves.

Teachers and administrators we have interviewed complain that a small group of youngsters—the term most frequently used was "hard core"—produces most of the violence and disruption in schools. Many teachers and administrators estimate that this group is "about 10 to 15 percent" and that the other 85 to 90 percent of students are seldom either victims or offenders.

To some extent these reports may be the result of that sorting of youngsters by which the school seems to modify patterns of social relations by defining some youngsters as uneducable and violent. The hard core may, however, represent an actual deviant group within the school community. Members of this group do not seem to come from any specific racial, ethnic, or socioeconomic background. School staff commonly describe them as students who have difficulty academically, are frequently in trouble in the community, and come from troubled homes.

Teachers, administrators, and students, however, indicate that this group of troublesome students can find allies among other students when specific situations arise. Thus school violence and disruptive behavior can be described as interactive: A small group of students frequently causes problems and at times sets off a chain reaction among other students.

The schools are often unable to deal with this group of troublesome students. The most common treatment reported is suspension, but very few educators say that suspensions are effective either as deterrents or as treatment. Staff members often complain about the unavailability of adequate counseling or psychiatric help. More and more, school systems are transferring troublesome students to other schools. School staff often suggested, however, that these students require special training and socialization experience.

What makes school disorders most significant for education is their effect on the climate of the school. In addition to the actual costs in terms of people and dollars, crime and disorder in schools disrupt learning. Since schools are charged with much of the responsibility for socialization, school disruption can have a lasting effect on youth and can spread out into the community and into the future. Also, crime and disruption and the potential for it can have serious effects on teachers, who find that fear for personal safety is detrimental to effective teaching. A safe school is necessary for effective learning and efficient teaching to take place.

The responsibility for prevention and control of scho crime has always rested more heavily on the school than o the community. Historically, this unevenness is based o the doctrine of *in loco parentis*: The parent delegates som authority over the child to the teacher. The doctrine conc the school's right to discipline the child.

In recent decades, schools have emphasized the mo positive developmental aspects of discipline, and studen have challenged the more negative forms in the courts. O of the legacies of the considerable media attention to scho crime and disruption, however, is that today interest reaffirming the school's right to use the more negati aspects of discipline is growing.

At the same time, new interest has arisen in the mo positive kind of school discipline—that which arises fro good governance. The governance procedures which sha behavior are usually expressed in school rules and regula tions. They are even more frequently found in informa social control: the importance or lack of importance attri uted to academic excellence, the structure of order, and t development of an identification with the mission of t school. These elements are, we believe, the important com ponents of the governance structure of a school.

Evidence is abundant that school governance thus broa ly defined is the major factor determining the level of crim and disruption in schools. Students' perception of th school as maintaining order and teachers' perception of their own ability to maintain order in class are positively related to lower losses, measured in dollars, from vandalism and theft. So are good coordination and mutual support between administration and faculty.

Also, school crime and disruption are reduced in schools where students say they can identify with the teachers and have access to them and where ethnic and racial harmony are great.

Conversely, where teachers' behavior shows a lack o respect for students and where competition among students is strong, property losses tend to increase.

We are going to describe a specific pattern of scho governance with a number of very distinctive features These features were the most frequently cited reasons fo success in the schools we have studied which were safe an just as obviously absent from those which were not. Mos important, the same features were reported to be respons ble for the improvement in *turnaround* schools—thos which had reversed a pattern of violence and disorder.

The most obvious and most frequently cited factor w the leadership style of the principal. Often the turnarou point in a school that was once considered unsafe and out control was the arrival of a new principal. Wherever princi pals were described as dynamically moving the schools fo ward, students, community residents, and school staff fre quently cited their educational leadership and the new edu cational programs they installed.

Visibility and availability to students and staff are tw other characteristics of the principals in schools which hav made a dramatic turnaround from periods of violence. Con versely, in schools which remained in difficulty, the princi pals were most frequently cited as the major problem

Often they were described as "unavailable and ineffective."

The principal's ability to initiate a structure of order in the school was equally important. A number of recent research findings indicate that a firm, fair, and consistent structure of order is an important determinant of success in many areas of education, from the teaching of reading to the establishment of a climate conducive to learning.

In such a governance system, discipline and sanctions, as well as rewards, are handed out in an evenhanded fashion. Students and faculty are aware of the consequences of specific acts and aware that exceptions are rarely, if ever, made. In unsuccessful schools, on the other hand, rule enforcement in the academic areas tends to be highly arbitrary and seems to serve disciplinary rather than educational ends.

Of particular importance was the principal's responsiveness to teachers' and students' opinions about school policy. In some cases this meant a receptivity to participation by students and teachers in making decisions; in others, a willingness to make known how decisions would be made and a practice of following these procedures with openness and honesty.

A number of characteristics of teachers also seem to be important in those schools where a successful governance program is part of the structure of social control. High self-esteem, job satisfaction, and general agreement with the principal's educational and procedural styles indicate the high morale common in successful schools. Teachers in such schools report that they are in those particular schools because they want to be there.

Cohesiveness among teachers and a sense of identification with students are other characteristics frequently mentioned. Generally, high faculty morale seems to be associated with a strong sense of school spirit among students.

Far from being simply the victim of external social forces, the school plays a major role in determining the incidence of school crime and disruption. Today only 8 percent of the elementary and secondary schools in the country are still being seriously affected by crime, violence, and disruption, while crime and delinquency rates in the community continue to grow. This indicates that schools have been able to resist external social trends and maintain their own social controls.

We have suggested a number of organizational variables over which schools have control—paramount among them being the governance pattern—that can make major differences in providing an orderly climate in which learning can occur.

Although many of these changes are within the control of the school itself, nevertheless, it is important for the school to maintain appropriate relationships with the community and with other parts of the educational system. Lacking such relationships, schools become isolated from the help they need to carry out their educating and socializing roles.

The results of such isolation are apparent in the case of those large urban secondary schools which show the highest incidence of crime and disruption. Principals in such schools more frequently report that they receive little support from the central administration than do other principals.

A number of other factors relating to school crime and disruption depend on resources outside the school. The critical importance of the principal's leadership style, for example, means that the training programs at universities and the selection and placement practices of school systems must be such as to locate, prepare, develop, and support suitable leaders.

In making decisions that affect the number and location of schools, communities should examine the relationship of school size to the dysfunctional effects of overcrowding and anonymity. Similarly, we should reconsider the age-grade structure of schools which presents seventh graders with the problems of adjusting to a new and much less structured school environment at the age when they seem least able to adjust to it.

Schools should turn to appropriate juvenile as well as other community agencies for help when—but only when—it is necessary. Schools have traditionally been reluctant to call in the police for all except the most serious situations, and then often too late. Every major report on school crime and disruption points to an apparent tendency of schools to underreport crimes. Most serious attacks and fights are not reported to the police. Even of those involving weapons or injury, only one-sixth are reported.

Throughout our experience in looking at school crime and disruption, we found that emphasis on people rather than devices, on preventive discipline rather than the presence of large numbers of security personnel, provided the most successful means of keeping schools safe.

Early identification of the youngsters in that small group most frequently associated with school violence and disorder also is important. Early identification should lead to adequate socialization for such students from early in their school careers, as well as to guidance programs and psychiatric care when necessary. Such measures should be characterized by a positive and preventive rather than a punitive style.

At present we are faced with a very real danger. Despite research indications to the contrary, the public continues to believe that school crime is escalating at an alarming rate. Until public opinion catches up with research, the schools may be tempted to turn increasingly to criminal justice instead of educational solutions.

Research on the social organization of schools indicates that there are structural changes and techniques of social control which do work in schools. Such changes in schools and in how they relate to their communities are within the school's own span of control and do not require major societal adjustments. They have the additional advantage that they have not been tried elsewhere and failed. □

This article was adapted from "School Crime and the Social Order of the School." *IRCD Bulletin* (Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University) 14; No. 1, Winter 1979.

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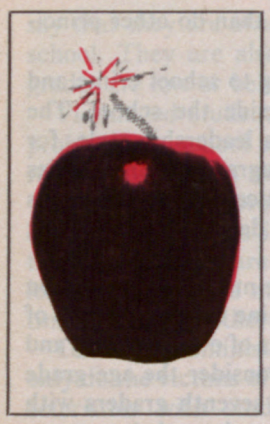


HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: NEW JERSEY

New Jersey teachers have a serious problem of violence and vandalism in the schools—2,600 cases were reported in just two months, May and June of 1979.

But that statistic has a second meaning: Forces in New Jersey are mobilizing to fight back, and legislative efforts by the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA) are an important part of the fight. The state reporting system that collected the figures above was set up, in April 1979, because of a new law that NJEA backed. Before that, no comprehensive reporting system existed.

The new system rests on a checklist, quick and easy to fill out. A report of an incident can travel from the person affected to the county superintendent of schools within 10 days and from there to the state commissioner of education.

Use of the checklist can reduce the number of incidents that are covered up locally; thus it can show which localities have special problems. The state commissioner is due to present an analysis of the results, with recommendations for reducing the incidence, to the legislature in June 1981.

NJEA has backed several other bills to help protect teachers from attack. One, now a state law, requires immediate suspension of any student who assaults a school employee. The school board must hold hearings on expulsion of the student within 21 days. Students who commit a second offense are suspended until all criminal charges have been settled, however long it takes.

Now in the legislature is an NJEA-backed bill to make penalties for juveniles who attack school employees the same as for those who attack police or firefighters, raising the maximum sentence from six months to three years. Another legislative proposal provides that 14-year-olds who injure school staff members be tried as adults.

"Now," says John Pietrowicz, staff contact of NJEA's Working Conditions Committee, "we have to get some alternative schools and classes for kids in trouble."

NJEA has not only pressed directly for new legislation but has strongly influenced the recommendations, presented in May 1979, of the state's Task Force on Violence, Vandalism, and Disruption in the Schools. These recommendations call not only for further state legislation, but for changes in the state's education administrative code and action by local districts. The Association's representatives on the 22-member task force were Atlantic County chemistry teacher Harry Knobloch, chair of NJEA's Working Conditions Committee, and John Pietrowicz.

"I was the only classroom teacher in the group, and it was hard to get some of the nonteaching members to recognize what it's like to teach in an atmosphere of disruption," Knobloch recalls. "But because the group represented different viewpoints, the public accepts its recommendations."

The Task Force eventually incorporated all of NJEA's existing policy recommendations on the subject into its recommendations. These range from ways to give troubled youngsters special help to special training for staff and streamlining for the juvenile justice system. NJEA's Delegate Assembly found it could endorse 46 of them. (It rejected a call for a check on criminal records of prospective employees because it might lead to fingerprinting or to discrimination against former strikers.)

NJEA itself has taken several kinds of action to help its members and locals reduce violence and vandalism. Locals can give parents NJEA's leaflets and information sheets on discipline. The Association has also published lists of suggestions on what teachers and association representatives can do when assaults occur and has circulated information about on-the-job injuries.

In October 1979, NJEA sponsored a conference on cutting school violence and vandalism, held in two locations on two successive Saturdays. The idea for the program came from the Association's Youth Services Committee, and the state Department of Education and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency were cosponsors.

About 150 people holding all kinds of positions in all kinds of school systems attended sessions on early detection, planning the environment to reduce violence, curriculum approaches to violence, specific school crime problems, developing school policy, teachers' legal rights, and conflict management. This program made a full and rather breathtaking day; participants wanted to see it repeated and expanded.

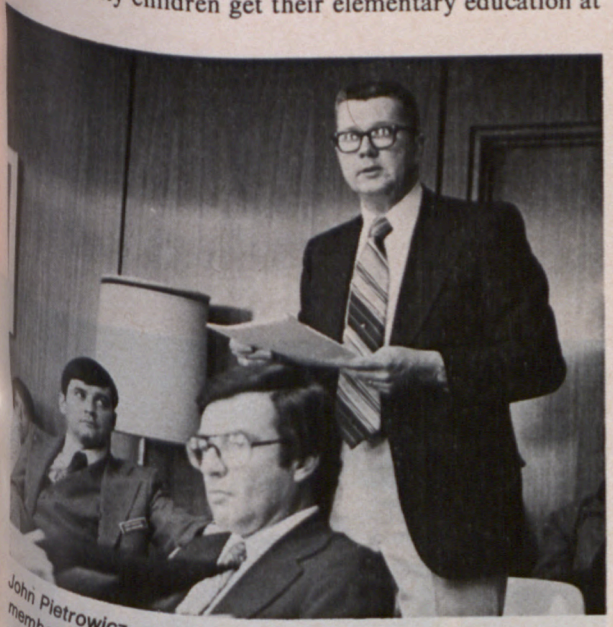
In November, sessions at the NJEA convention described issues related to violence and vandalism and some outstanding local efforts.

The convention participants had a chance to find out about the Bergenfield project, for example. Now in its eighth year, this project involves the schools, the police,

and many community groups. Together, with support from the New Jersey Health Department, they plan and carry on several programs to prevent delinquency.

Because the programs are preventive, they concentrate on the elementary level. Rather than teach specific content, classroom activities build self-respect, the ability to make wise decisions, and an understanding of group dynamics. Evan Goldman, an NEA director who has been president of the Bergenfield Education Association for 12 years, expresses one idea behind the project: "If you treat the children like people, they act like people."

Located a few miles from New York City, Bergenfield has a lot of blue-collar workers and some executives. Unemployment is running at about 6 percent. Most of the town's minority children get their elementary education at



John Pietrowicz, an NJEA Field Services coordinator and member of the State Task Force on Violence, Vandalism, and Disruption in the Schools, reports to the State Board of Education on the Task Force findings. Listening to his presentation are NJEA member Harry Knobloch (left), also a member of the Task Force, and Board member David Brandt (foreground).

the Hoover School.

Ed Callison, Hoover's principal, says the self-respect program is the key to helping the pupils avoid delinquency as they grow older. A contract system for schoolwork and behavior helps. "Everyone signs the contract," says Callison, "the teacher, the kid, the parent, the principal—then maybe, for example, the reward is to help the custodian, so he signs, too."

Bergenfield superintendent Rocco Montesano has his own part in preventing delinquency. He knows most of his 4,300 students by name, often sits in the lounge or shoots baskets with them. Students are welcome to bring their problems to his office in a wing of Bergenfield High School or to call his home outside of school hours.

Every few weeks Montesano meets with 25 or 30 students from grades 7 through 12—not just the model students, but a cross section. "If you give me a problem, give me a solution," Montesano requires—and the students have brought in and solved some tough ones. Currently a pilot project is tackling smoking in the bathrooms.

The superintendent isn't abdicating responsibility: "Input isn't a decision," he says. But input can make a difference.

"It's the kids' having a say in running the schools that prevents school crime," asserts Gavin L. Blane, chief of the Bergenfield Police Department. Since 1970, the annual cost of vandalism in Bergenfield has dropped significantly, the chief says.

Where do the police fit in? "They aren't trying to see how many people they can bust," says Evan Goldman. "They're trying to prevent delinquency. After all, a lot of them are parents or former students themselves."

Police officers visit the fifth grade classes several times a year, letting the children get to know them. On the last visit, the officer, the teacher, and their husbands or wives take the class on an excursion. "They start the year asking how many people we've killed, and we end up as all human beings together," says a juvenile officer.

But the project in Bergenfield goes beyond the schools and police to the community. In one program, 60 households have volunteered to undergo training and take in youngsters in trouble for periods of up to 10 days. These young people have never been charged with an offence; their trouble is at home or with their own feelings or behavior.

The students and their parents both must agree to the visit. They get at least three sessions of counseling or other help before the visit is over. "This way they keep on going to school," says Chief Blane. "And if they're having trouble at home, school is where their base of support is."

The Bergenfield project is well-established, a model which the New Jersey Health Department uses to start other communities thinking about what they can do to prevent school crime.

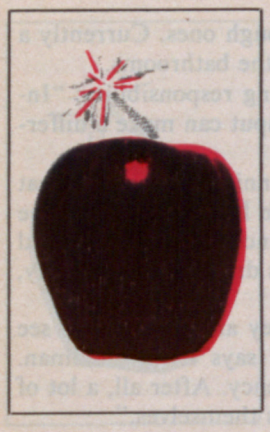
Another, very new project in the state has just started in Jersey City with NEA and local association backing.

"If we all recognize each other's needs, the kids won't leave school angry," says human relations specialist Michael Burke of Jersey City, and this can prevent trouble. Burke has set himself a challenge: to cut violence and vandalism in the city's schools by 35 percent in three years. The Hilda Maehling Fellowship Committee and the Jersey City Education Association are backing his idea.

Burke's first step in this first year of the project has been to hold workshops for parents and teachers—notably for teams of two teachers and one parent from each of the 15 of Jersey City's schools that suffers the most vandalism.

The teams exchange ideas that have worked in their schools and learn new methods of conflict resolution. They practice active listening—hearing feelings, not just words, so as to reach students' problems and needs before they cause trouble.

Last May and June a disturbing amount of school violence and vandalism was reported in New Jersey, and when the habit of reporting is well established, the monthly totals may rise. But things are plainly going to get better in the state. The teachers association at all levels, state agencies, local police, and many other citizens will see to that. □



HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: PORTLAND, OREGON

The night custodian at Portland's newest high school talked about his job while sweeping trash off the floor: "Every evening I come into this school and I don't know *what* I'm gonna find. These crazy kids ain't got no respect for this school."

In the cafeteria of the same school that night, the Portland (Oregon) Association of Teachers (PAT) was training teachers to improve their discipline skills. Their aim: to help stop the student violence and vandalism that cost each of the city's 350,000 citizens almost $1 per year.

The teachers were learning to organize written records of their students' behavior. They were studying the district's discipline policies. And they were devising standard ways to report violations of those policies.

The workshop was part of PAT's program to reduce school violence, vandalism, and learning disruption.

Portland's teachers have helped reduce vandalism expenditures in some schools by 30 percent in the past two years.

In 1977, the Association received almost $2,000 from NEA's School Violence Grants Program (administered by NEA Teacher Rights).

By offering four $125 awards for the best building-level projects in the district and $25 prizes to all entries, PAT created an incentive for action by teachers, students, administrators, and community groups.

At Whitaker-Columbia Middle School, students surveyed staff and students on their attitudes toward vandalism; made and displayed photographs of examples of vandalism on their campus; held classroom discussions; and developed assembly programs, posters, and announcements in the school's daily bulletin. Students carried out a "secret witness" program with rewards and fines.

At Ainsworth School, student candidates made speeches and presentations to an assembly that selected one of them

"The public seems surprised that teachers have to accept violence as part of their job description," says PAT President Barbara Donin. "We had zero awareness. We have had to change attitudes from the individual school building level up." The teachers at some Portland schools have seen a 30 percent reduction in vandalism losses since their campaign against school violence and vandalism began three years ago.

Right, Portland's Association teachers train together for better classroom discipline. PAT nearly struck to get a districtwide discipline procedure when negotiating their last contract. A teacher can remove a disruptive student from a class and can grieve an administrator's action if the teacher is unhappy with the handling of an incident.

to be the school Crime Stopper. The winner served on the student council, chaired an antivandalism committee, and gave reports over the school's public address system. The school's antiviolence committee prepared an antivandalism information packet to be given to all students during the first week of school.

The results of one survey taken of students by middle school students showed the top three reasons for vandalism: just for kicks, for revenge against school and teachers, and because of personal problems, in that order.

"We've seen tires slashed, eggs tossed, and car locks filled with glue," says PAT President Barbara Donin. "But now each building in our district has felt the impact of our antivandalism program. Even schools that didn't win awards have been helped."

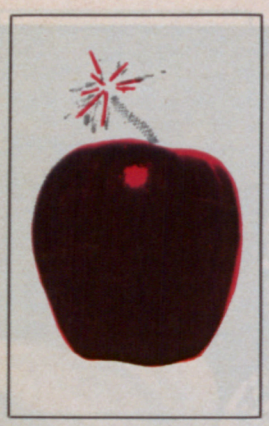
Every building in the district except one has had a decrease in costs caused by violence, reports Donin. The exception reported an increase of a couple of hundred dollars.

Another factor in Portland's improved school environment is a discipline clause that PAT negotiated into its most recent contract with the school board. A teacher can remove a disruptive student from the classroom and arrange a conference with the student's parents and the principal. In addition, teachers will be reimbursed for losses caused by attack or vandalism.

A teacher can grieve an administrative action if the administrator's handling of an incident is considered unsatisfactory.

Donin says, "Violence, vandalism, and classroom disruption don't happen just in big Eastern ghettos. While we Oregonians were busy marveling at our tall trees, our kids were breaking school windows."

"The bottom line," she points out. "is that we've gotten together and made a difference." □



HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE: HAWAII

"I love my job," says Mike Ishihara, a teacher at Pearl City High School in Honolulu. "And I don't want to be forced into doing something else for a living because of stress or fear."

The schools of balmy Hawaii have not been a teacher's paradise. One large intermediate school has an entire wall of boarded-up broken windows—at least 20 of them. A student was beaten to death in a high school. A parent assaulted a teacher. On different occasions, students have assaulted three teachers in one school. One of the teachers suffered a maimed hand.

So for two years, Mike Ishihara and a corps of Association teachers from around the state have acted to stop violence, vandalism, and discipline problems in Hawaii's schools.

And they haven't tried to solve the problem alone. Not only the Hawaii State Teachers Association (HSTA), but the Hawaii Department of Education, the state law enforcement administration, community groups, students, politicians, and the media—all have taken part in the program entitled "Hawaii Schools That Achieve."

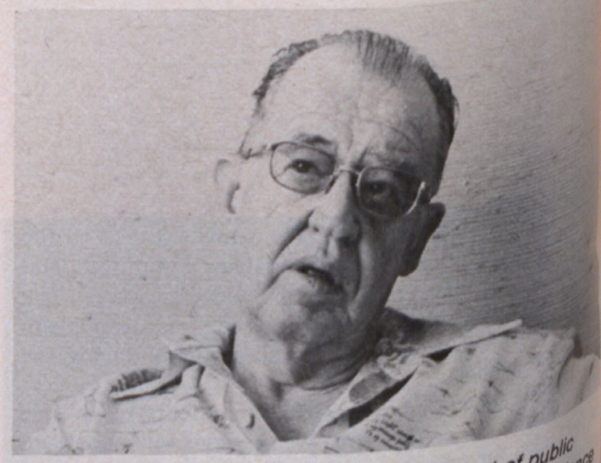
HSTA collected $15,000 to start the program in 1976. Sources included NEA's School Violence Grants Program (administered by NEA Teacher Rights), federal Law Enforcement Assistance Administration funds, U.S. Office of Education grants, and state association money.

In a program cosponsored by a number of state and national agencies, HSTA has sent representatives for training at Awareness House in Oakland, California. Located at Mills College, Awareness House is a training and resource center sponsored by the U.S. Office of Education.

Participating in the program are teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents. The trainees develop communications and process skills. They explore social and cultural issues, learn problem-solving techniques, and practice ways to develop coalitions or teams.

"We thought they were going to give us lots of program ideas," says Noreen Horita, a teacher at Pearl City High School, "but they gave us interpersonal relationship skills instead—and they work.

"We had had an unhappy, uncooperative, unwilling atmosphere at our school," she says. "Those of us who went



Charles Clark, Hawaii's state superintendent of public schools, and partner in the HSTA project to stop violence and vandalism, says, "Despite a lot of hard bargaining, we are tackling these problems together."

Teachers Mike Ishihara (left) and Noreen Horita (reading) attended a two-week training program at Mills College in 1978. Since then, they've built a team of faculty, students, and administrators who have changed the attitude at Pearl City High School from apathetic to active. "We all give and get more support," says Ishihara.

for training discovered that to change the attitude we had to become more encouraging and open-minded."

Her school began a teacher-student version of a big brother/big sister program. They used the school's physical education and health education curriculum to discourage smoking. The principal allowed students to paint and spruce up bathrooms to create a feeling of ownership. A student grievance program was instituted to help eliminate inconsistencies in the enforcement of rules. The school staff also holds picnics and bowling nights and has organized a volleyball team.

"Teachers have become more willing to get involved at work," says Horita. "We communicate better. There are fewer misunderstandings and rumors. Students have noticed that teachers have more of a school spirit."

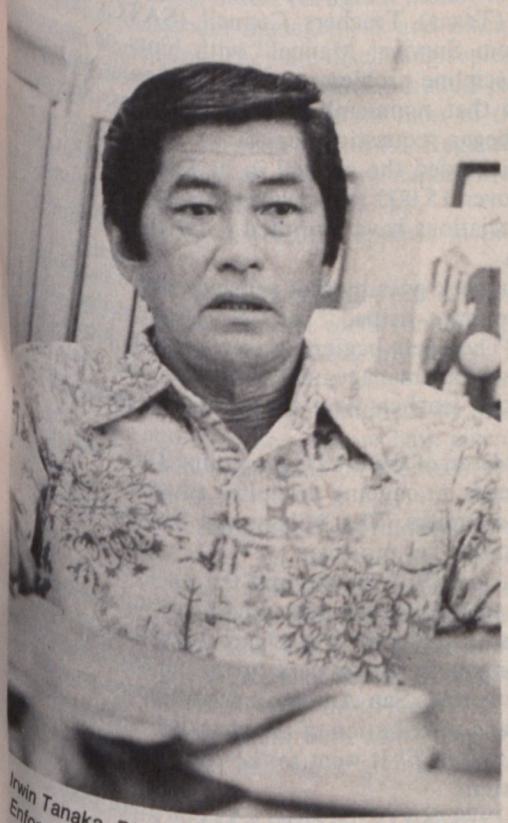
School spirit, which seemed corny a while back, is even catching on with students.

"You'll always have a few knuckle-heads who dump trash in the schoolyard," says Horita, "but things are better. I'm not afraid to go to school."

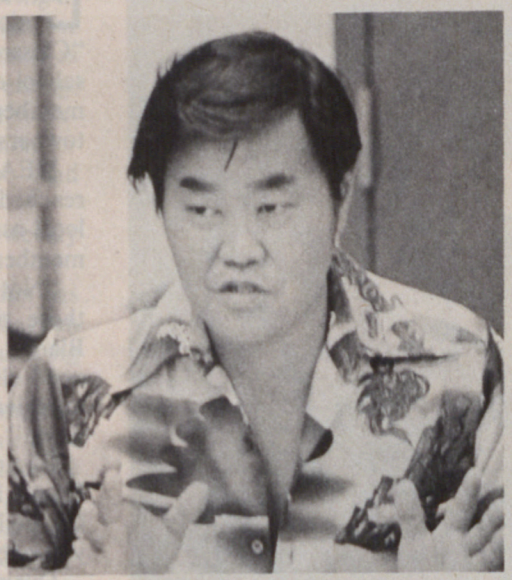
According to Ray Sodetani of HSTA, the incidence of disruptive behavior reported in several targeted schools has decreased by 64 percent.

Each year more people have been trained, enthusiasm grows, interest in the project spreads, and improvement shows.

As one participant says, "We are tackling professional problems together." □

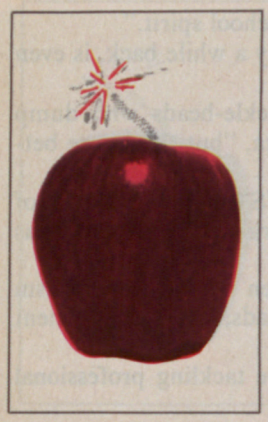


Irwin Tanaka, Director of the state's Law Enforcement Assistance Administration agency, supports the HSTA program with funding and training assistance. "In Hawaii, there are no truant officers, and cops don't automatically pick up kids off the streets. The schools believe counselors can help. But there are so few counselors, and some elementary schools don't even have counseling programs. In schools that have counselors, too often the principal makes them attendance and discipline officers. It's hard to grab the bull by the horns and do something as HSTA has."



Ray Sodetani spent a year on leave from HSTA's UniServ staff to arrange the funding, training, and implementation of the antiviolence and vandalism programs throughout the state.

Ed Fedak, a teacher, just received the legal papers that allow him to head a new, nonprofit foundation with HSTA as its chief sponsor. The teacher-run foundation will secure grants to carry on the antiviolence and antivandalism programs the HSTA initiated for the state's school community.



HOW EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS FIGHT VIOLENCE:

SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS

Delores Blanar, president of the San Antonio Teachers Council, says the association's discipline-awareness program is her pet project. "Not a week goes by that someone doesn't call and say those tips have helped."

Last summer, the Discipline Task Force of the San Antonio (Texas) Teachers Council (SATC) prepared a "Classroom Survival Manual" with hints on preventing school discipline problems. It was so popular with SATC members that nonmembers, administrators, and out-of-towners began requesting copies.

NEA included the manual in its Discipline Kit, which reached over 15,000 local leaders across the country, and local associations have reprinted it for thousands of other members.

"Not a week goes by that someone doesn't call and say those tips have helped," says SATC President Delores Blaner. "They help beginning teachers who haven't developed classroom management skills yet, and they remind experienced teachers that these are the techniques that work."

Chairperson of the SATC Discipline Task Force Charles Hanus heads an ongoing discipline education program for Council members. The "Classroom Survival Manual" is just one of his pet projects.

During fall 1978, Hanus and the Task Force devised a checklist to help parents recognize their influence on their children's attitudes toward school. Teachers distributed it in shopping malls and grocery stores and at PTA meetings. The next spring, San Antonio's school board paid for the printing and distribution of the checklist—"What Kind of Parent Are You?" It went to the parents of every student in the system.

In fall 1979, SATC received a $3,600 grant from NEA's School Violence Grants Program—and the Discipline Task Force further expanded its program.

SATC sent a new brochure entitled "Teach All the Children" to parents before schools held open houses. It provided them a checklist to use in evaluating the school's program.

SATC also initiated a parent volunteer aide program for the school district.

The Discipline Task Force sent teachers a newsletter, "Discipline Update." One issue described discipline methods; another, news of the state legislature's Disruptive Students Bill. A third included a checklist —a "discipline barometer" that helps a teacher sense potential problem days (similar to a biorhythm chart).

SATC is using much of its NEA grant money to bring in 10 experts on classroom management and discipline for after-school workshops. They are discussing topics such as time management, assertive discipline, practical parenting, and teacher rights. The attendance for most of the workshops so far has been between 50 and 75. Registration for the first workshop—one on classroom management—had to be limited after 325 teachers signed up.

A regular discipline tips column appears in the weekly SATC newsletter.

Says Blanar, "This is the best thing our association has ever done. The classroom teacher wants something that can help him or her directly. Teachers are always thanking us."

SATC's program has not gone unnoticed by the community. Local radio and television stations have given air time for public service announcements on the need to improve classroom environments.

Every Thursday morning, the *San Antonio Express* runs "It's the Kids That Count" on the front page. SATC sponsors the guest column, which builds positive attitudes toward learning. "Hopefully families will try the family outings, regular library visits, and word games at home that the columns describe, and some of the resulting enthusiasm will spill over to the classroom," says Hanus.

"Both parents and teachers want some help with their children," says Blanar, "and we're giving them practical ideas and suggestions."

"One indication of our success with teachers," she continues, "is a steady increase in SATC membership over the last couple of years." □

Charles Hanus writes discipline tips for SATC's weekly newsletter, and he chairs the association's Discipline Task Force. He says there are five things a teacher should do to be an effective disciplinarian: 1. Be firm. 2. Be fair. 3. Be friendly. 4. Be consistent. 5. Be prepared. "They're almost clichés," he says, "but they work."

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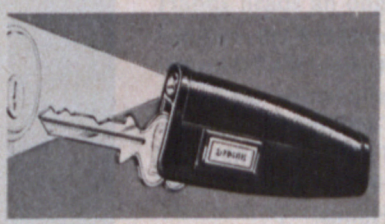

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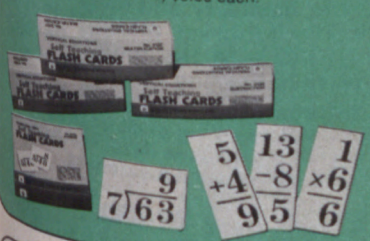

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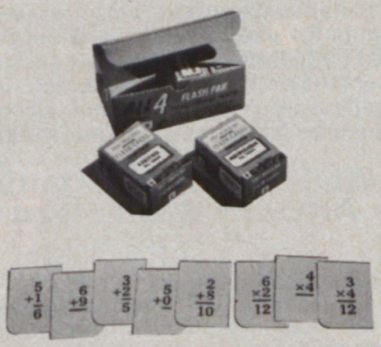

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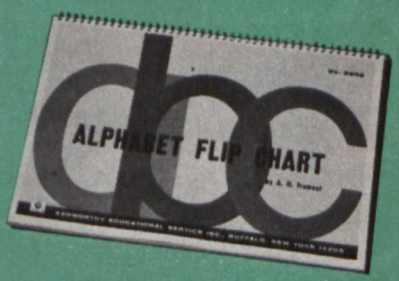

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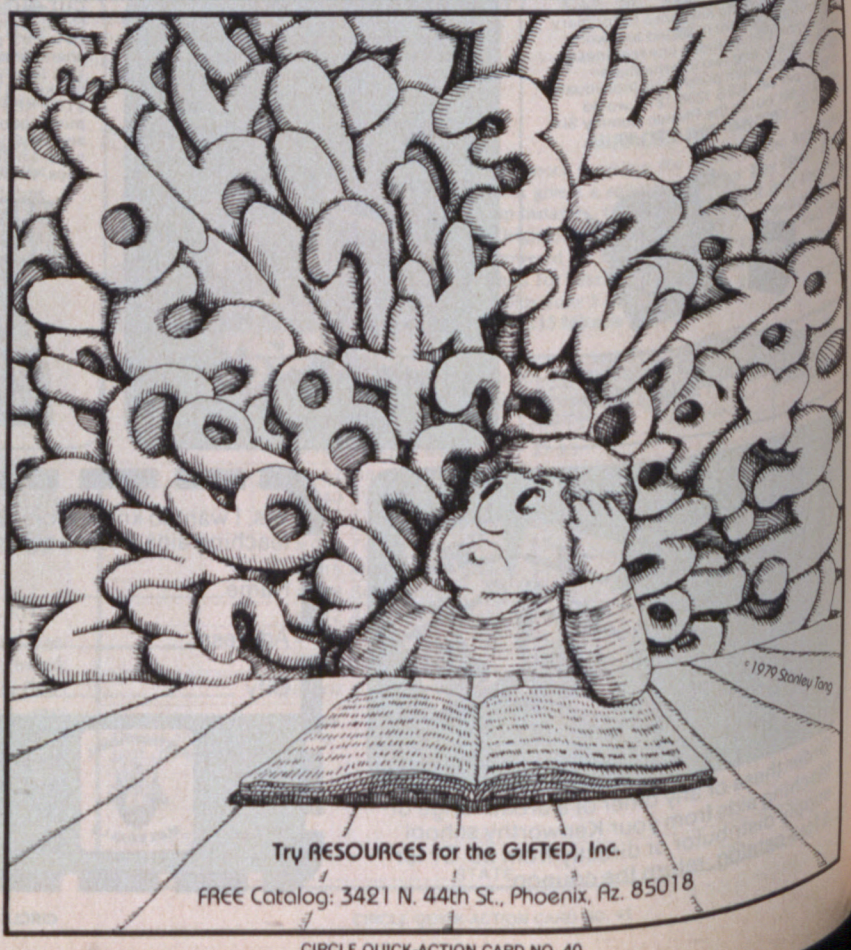

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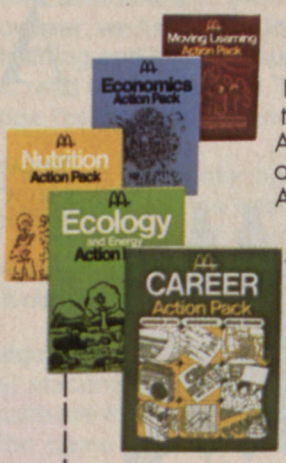

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How Fares the Common School?

What should the schools' agenda in the 1980's be? I would plead for one made up of interconnected elements and one around which policymakers, educators, students, and parents might unite in concerted planning and action. Presumably, this would be the agenda of our new Department of Education, too.

Space limits me to a discussion of only part of this agenda: our commitments to educational goals and universal schooling, the "commonness" of the so-called common school, and the role of nurturing pedagogy in the educational sustenance of the young.

I became increasingly aware of the urgency of these elements when I was involved in conducting two large school-based projects over the past 14 years. The first, involving a consortium of 18 schools (The League of Cooperating Schools) confirmed for me both the importance and the difficulty of focusing on the totality of each individual school as the unit of improvement for our schools. The second, an inquiry into practice in 38 schools in seven major regions of the United States (A Study of Schooling) confirmed for me the urgency and authenticity of the elements I have chosen.

This paper is not a summary of the findings from either project. Conclusions and interpretations from the first already have been presented in several volumes. I am now preparing a summary volume based on the second, to be published in 1981. Additional volumes on selected themes and topics will appear later. The experience and data from both projects provide a backdrop for what follows.

Several years ago, on the pages of this journal, I observed that the American people have steadily expanded both their custodial and their educational expectations for schools. In recent years, however, we have been informed that people just want the schools to provide job training and to teach survival skills such as the ability to balance a checkbook and read the newspaper. This analysis strikes me as one more of those that misjudge the popular will and conventional wisdom.

Data from our Study of Schooling support my contention that parents still want their schools to educate comprehensively for the intellectual, vocational, social, and personal development of their children. Of course, they want their offspring to be able to read, write, spell, and manipulate numbers with some proficiency, but they also want them to be knowledgeable about science, social studies, literature, and the arts.

We educators would be well advised to develop comprehensive curriculums designed specifically to ensure that *all* students are caught up in curricular and instructional processes designed to cultivate their full capabilities and sensitivities. To fail to do so—whether in the name of back to basics or minimum competency—is to fail to fulfill a critical part of this nation's commitment to

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By JOHN I. GOODLAD
Dean of the Graduate School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, and Director of Research, Institute for Development of Educational Activities.

universal schooling. Other data from A Study of Schooling, to which I turn shortly, raise in my mind some disturbing questions about the degree to which life in schools even modestly mirrors our rhetorical definitions of, and expectations for, education.

Among the world's countries, we rank high in our commitment to universal schooling. Today, 85 percent of Whites and 75 percent of Blacks complete high school. We must not give up on our effort to do better in the quantitative sense. But the time has come to look long and hard at the qualitative aspects of our continuing drive for universal schooling. The data we are getting from achievement and proficiency tests and records of job placement, while not entirely useless, do not and will not answer the most fundamental questions about the quality of the education we provide. We must look directly at programs and practices in each school and ask ourselves if we like what goes on there.

Providing programs of instruction that comprehensively enhance the intellectual, social, vocational, and personal development of children and youths is no small accomplishment. Indeed, we are currently giving very little attention to the development of cumulative well-balanced curriculums and the construction of school programs according to creative blueprints. The neglect shows.

Partly in the name of individual differences in students' learning abilities, we frequently place secondary students in different learning tracks. It seems reasonable to assume that the levels of these tracks represent different levels of complexity or difficulty in a sequential, cohesive body of subject matter. Those in the lower tracks presumably will encounter the subject matter covered in the upper tracks in succeeding semesters or years. I doubt that such assumptions are reflected in practice.

The 13 high schools selected for A Study of Schooling differ in size, socioeconomic status and ethnicity of students, location, and the like. Eight of them tracked students in four of the basic subjects: mathematics, English, social studies, and science. The remaining five tracked in three of these four subjects. Frequently, the content and materials taught in the lower and upper tracks differed so much that they appeared to be different subjects rather than different levels of the same subjects. Further, few data suggest that teachers are using special pedagogical procedures designed to assist with the presumed learning difficulties of those in the lower tracks. Rather than providing for individual differences, are we perhaps giving up on individuals?

Often students in our sample of high schools appeared to be divided into programs that were largely academic or largely vocational. Academically oriented students were taking some vocational courses as electives, not as a carefully conceived component of general education. Vocationally oriented students were enrolled in academic courses to meet minimum requirements for graduation, not to fulfill a requirement of a well-balanced curriculum. Moreover, these students frequently took their academic courses together and not in classes with their academically oriented peers. For the most part, vocationally oriented students have little chance of switching to predominantly academic programs.

Apparently assuming that some students are incapable of progressing in academic subjects beyond the bare minimums, we take comfort in the assumption that they are being prepared for jobs. But what jobs? The record on placing students in jobs for which the schools prepared them should elicit no cheers. Moreover, the prospect that many vocational trainees will have limited job mobility and will be unemployed is downright depressing.

One wonders, too, how many will have had appropriate education for effective parenthood and citizenship. Settling for too little for many of our young people is an injustice to them. It also means that we are settling for too little for our society. Getting more young people into school gives us

grounds for satisfaction only if we can be sure that *all* of them receive quality education there.

Some of us have extolled the virtues of the so-called common school: a school commonly attended by rich and poor, White and Black, where students commonly encounter a curricular core and where their different talents and aspirations are commonly attended to through uncommon curricular offerings and pedagogical methods and techniques. The common school, I fear, fares badly today. Threatened externally by voucher plans and special interests, it has crumbled internally because of our misinterpreting the meaning of individual differences and because of our failing to take seriously Bruner's inspiring thesis that ". . . any subject can be taught in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development."

Restoring some commonness to the common school is a top agenda item for the 1980's. The task should return us to some of the hard thinking about curriculum and instruction in which we have engaged so very little since the mid-1960's.

To provide for the intellectual, social, vocational, and personal development of children and youths demands a balanced curriculum that comprehensively meets these goals. It also calls for planning, scheduling, and counseling to ensure that all students participate in this curriculum. Students are not participating if they are enrolled but spend many school days on the streets. Nor are they participating when we give up on them early, succumbing to self-fulfilling prophecies about their limited expectations. Nor are they participating if we fail to engage their interests and abilities in meaningful learning.

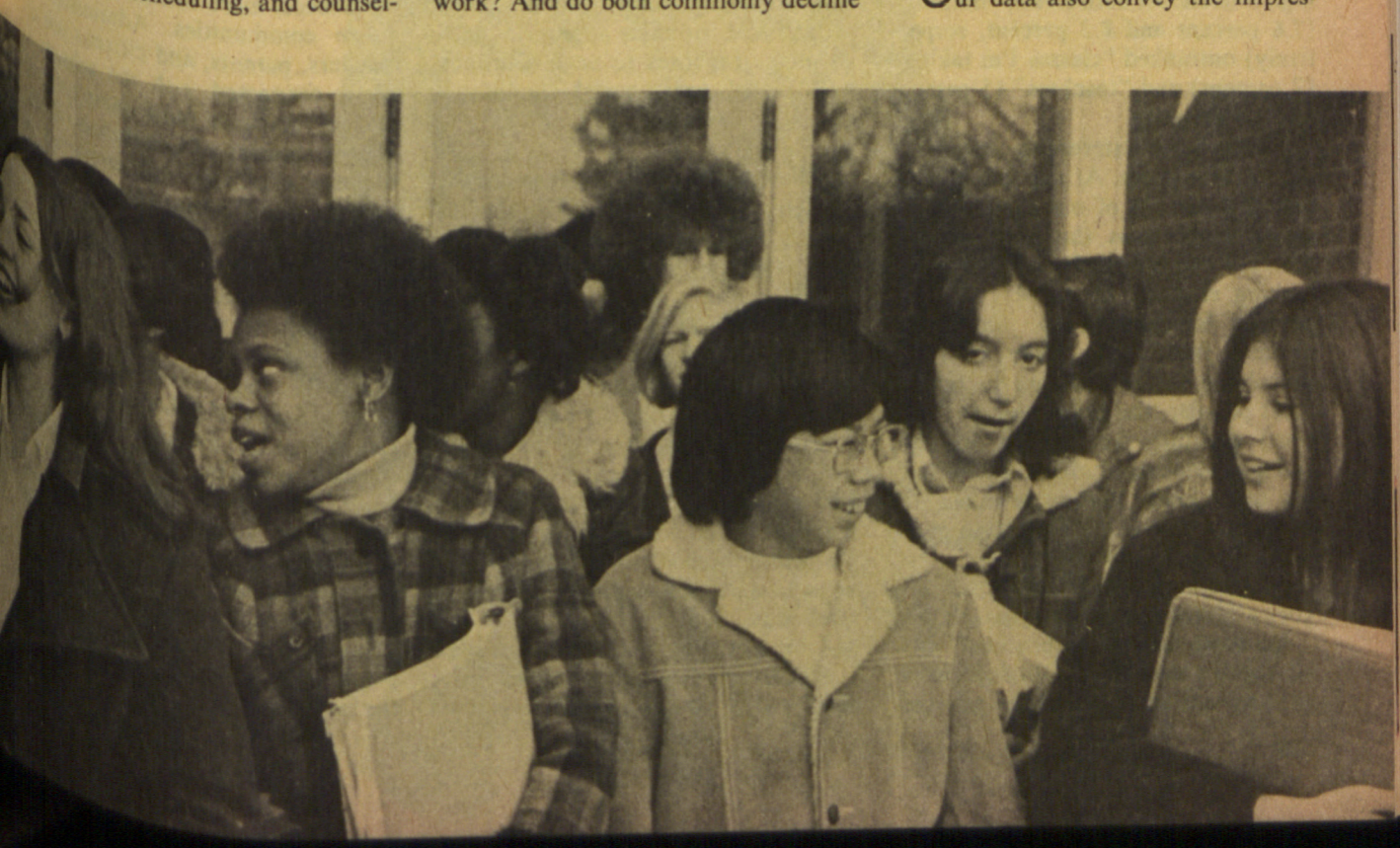
In our study, teachers ranked high the praising and encouraging of students as a way of increasing their learning. But in practice we found precious little praise in classrooms—a finding with which some other researchers agree. We found more in the primary than in the upper grades. We observed twice as many instances of teachers' praising, encouraging, and correcting with guidance and of positive student-teacher interactions at the early elementary level as at the senior high school level.

We asked students in our sample to answer some questions about their views of themselves. Interestingly, their general self-concepts rose with each successive grade, while their academic self-concepts dropped—especially markedly from grades six through nine. Is there a relationship between the support teachers give students in their learning and students' self-concepts regarding their school work? And do both commonly decline as one moves upward through the grades?

We asked students in grades four through 12 to rate school subjects on how much they liked them, how important they were, and how difficult they were. Consistently, students said they liked the arts the best, with physical education and vocational/career education vying for second and third places. Overall, none of the subjects usually considered academic rose above fourth place at either the junior or senior high levels. Mathematics placed third at the upper elementary level, where vocational/career education was not included in the list of choices.

Interestingly, these three most-liked subjects are usually more action-oriented than the academic subjects. I do not wish to convey the impression that classes in the academic subjects should be converted into a whirlwind of activity, but far too many classrooms from the fourth grade up rely on homogenized textbooks and workbooks and on a narrow range of teaching techniques. Even in the arts—the most-liked subject—something deadly seems to happen to the exciting potential of drama, dance, music, and the visual arts as they enter the classroom. We desperately need a pedagogical renaissance at all levels of schooling and in all fields.

Our data also convey the impres-



sion that large numbers of junior and senior high school students are preoccupied with, and favorably impressed by, interests and activities other than academic ones. We asked the 13,700 junior and senior high school students in our sample to choose from six classifications of students the ones they perceived to be most popular. When we averaged the results from each school, "good-looking students" (37 percent) and "athletes" (23 percent) together accounted for 60 percent of the junior high choices. This combination averaged a whopping 78.6 percent in the senior high schools. The category "smart students" fared badly in the popularity sweepstakes. The average choosing this category was 13.5 percent for junior highs and a low 7 percent for senior highs.

Data on student participation in extracurricular activities and their choice of "the one best thing I like about this school" support the importance of games and peers at the adolescent level. The choice of "sports teams" from among six categories of extracurricular activities was 53 percent at the junior and 43 percent at the senior high level. When students were given 12 alternatives for responding to the "best thing" question, "my friends" and "sports activities" were the top choices—together averaging 52 percent in the junior and 46 percent in the senior high schools. At both levels, "nothing" (7.6 percent and 8.3 percent, respectively) outranked "classes I'm taking" (7 percent) and "teachers" (5 percent and 3.4 percent).

There were interesting school-to-school differences. At one junior high, only 2.4 percent of our sample chose smart students as the most popular whereas 79 percent chose either good-looking students or athletes as most popular. Students in one junior high deviated from those in the others by perceiving smart students to be the most popular, the proportion (37 percent) equaling the total for athletes and good-looking students. But in only one other junior high were smart students on a par with athletes and good-looking students in the popularity ratings. And at the senior level, the category athletes was the runaway choice.

Do these findings surprise us? After all, we're a very sports-minded nation. And we are all aware of the self-conscious primping engaged in by both boys and girls as they enter puberty. Bruno Bettelheim has questioned whether students who are going through puberty take academic work seriously in the heterosexual environment of the school.

Would we prefer that these findings were reversed so that smart students became the dominant group in popularity? How might we proceed toward such a goal? By finding ways to give visibility and rewards to students who excel in scholarship and artistic performance? By separating the sexes for schooling during adolescence?

Clearly, secondary school students are preoccupied with many things. Academically bright students probably are able to take in stride the nonacademic ethos of schools. But what about that larger group for whom school is a rite of passage made tolerable by sports and the opportunity to interact daily with their peers? What must we do if we want all students to enjoy a systematic, sustained, deliberate process of educational development?

In light of the data presented here, I don't see any actions, planned or taking place, that offer any real prospect of addressing what I conclude to be, at best, a poor academic and intellectual atmosphere in many of our secondary schools. Instead, the recent preoccupations with proficiency examinations, behavioral objectives, and simplistic pedagogical formulas appear to me to be puny responses to an institutional problem of great social significance and complexity.

We have been told that parents in particular are dissatisfied with schools. Our data suggest otherwise. Given the opportunity to grade their school on a five-point scale from A to E, the parents in 11 of our 13 elementary schools gave an average grade of B; the parents in the other two schools, an average grade of C. At the junior high level, 11 schools received an average grade of B; and one school, an average of C. At the senior high level, nine schools were marked B; and four, C. Except at the elementary school level, parents gave schools marks higher than teachers and students did.

Our data show that principals, teachers, and parents surveyed in A Study of Schooling would give more influence in decision making to groups close to the local school, such as parent-teacher organizations or teachers or advisory councils. They would give less to superintendents, board members, and state and federal lawmakers. Parents do not want to take authority away from the principals and teachers in individual schools, but they want less influence on the school from more distant lawmakers and from teachers' unions. They place themselves below the principal, teachers, superintendent, and even the board in regard to groups who should have the most influence.

But principals and teachers in our sample are less chary about placing themselves in the most powerful roles. Both teachers and principals believe the superintendent, principal, and board (in that order) exert the most influence now in making decisions for their specific schools. Both would change this order. The teachers believe they should have the most influence on decisions for their schools, with the principal and superintendent in second and third positions. Principals would place themselves in the position of top influence, followed by the superintendent and the teachers.

The real question concerning power and influence is Who should have responsibility and authority for what decisions?

As I see it, the challenge of making our schools more educative extends to entire communities. Administrators, teachers, parents, and citizens not directly connected with the schools as well as students must participate in finding solutions. Nonetheless, if only because educators are employed to provide good education in schools, they must provide much of the leadership. I believe that we have little other than ourselves and our own capabilities to fear.

At this stage of analyzing the data from A Study of Schooling, I am convinced that the findings will provide a specific, compelling agenda for making our schools more educative. Dare I predict that we all will join in bringing to this agenda for the eighties the best ideas emerging from inquiry and experience? Or will political and legal matters continue to consume most of our precious time and energy as they did in the seventies? □

From Reading to Literacy

Research into reading has been a major industry in this country and abroad for many years. Thousands of words have been written on the subject—and often the jargon is baffling and obscure—but nothing has quite equaled the forthright, picturesque language used by Kenneth Goodman to state the undeniable truth:

No quest among educational endeavors in America within the past century has been more diligently pursued with more energy, more resources, and more urgency than the search for universally effective reading instruction. Reading researchers, teachers, text authors have followed every promising path, explored every blind alley, turned every stone, rubbed every magic lamp, indulged every faith healer, bought every patent medicine. We've borrowed treatments from general medicine, psychiatry, physical therapy, industrial management.

And when the dust settled, when the parade was over, when the band wagon lost a wheel, when the revival pulled down its tent and moved on, there we were with the same sobering truth: some kids learned to read easily and well and some didn't. And, if we were honest, we had to admit it was possible that some kids learned to read in spite of what we did to and for them rather than because of it.

By ETHEL L. HEINS
Editor, *The Horn Book Magazine.*

Nowadays people scarcely need reminders of the clamor that has been raised over steadily declining *Scholastic Aptitude Test* scores and students' inability to read, write, speak, and even listen intelligently. A highly suspect educational back-to-basics movement, resulting in the adoption of competency testing programs for essential skills, has combined in unholy wedlock with the national stampede toward tax cuts and spending controls initiated by California's Proposition 13. As usual, young people, who are politically unattractive because they have neither voice nor vote, are the victims. But if a children's book specialist can be forgiven the temerity of talking about reading to professional educators, a few points can be made.

Ominous cries of dismay have been heard for a long time. In the January 1976 issue, the *Yale Alumni Magazine* let loose a stinging charge in a special section called "The Writing Gap."

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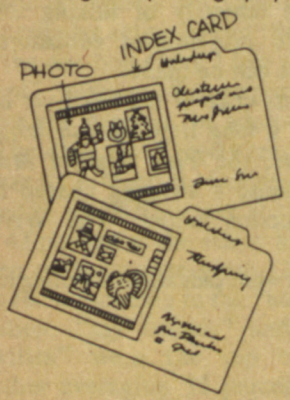

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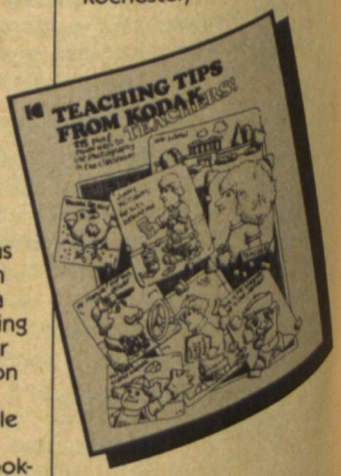

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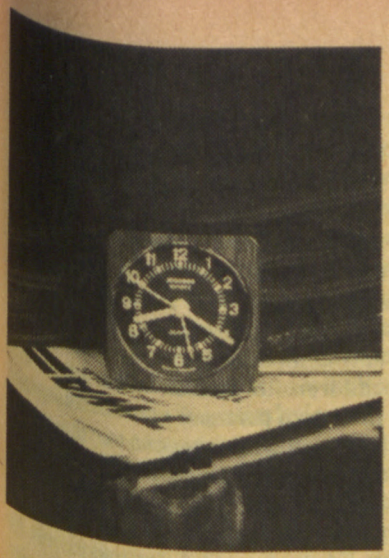

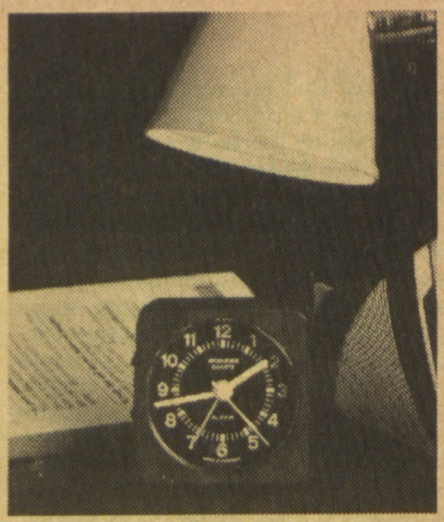

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knows that students can't write. The students know it themselves—their eagerness to take writing courses is a desperate cry for help. It is easy to blame the schools and colleges for so fundamental a failure, and some of the blame is properly theirs. But the causes are rooted far more deeply in a society which rears its children on sentimental and shoddy reading matter, which bathes them in the linguistic sludge of television, and which debases the English language in the place where all learning begins: at home. Though the crisis of values that we explore on these pages is most harmful to the young, there is no hiding place for older generations in smugness or complacency. Many of the articles and letters sent to this magazine, for instance, are simply too fuzzy to be understood, and most are strewn with errors of grammar, syntax, usage, and spelling. The problem, in other words, belongs to us all. So does the solution.

In 1975, *Newsweek* published an explosive article citing "a steady erosion of reading skills" and an appalling decline in verbal proficiency among students since the mid-sixties. Our country "is spawning a generation of semiliterates," said the magazine; and the criticisms were coming as loudly from industry, commerce, and the professions as they were from the universities. " 'The United States,' says poet Karl Shapiro, 'is in the midst of a literary breakdown.' "

Now this state of affairs seems all the more ironic to me when I think about our impressive library facilities for children; the brilliant, abundant array of books published for children; the enormous amount of money spent in this generation on educational research and special programs; and our modern scientific knowledge of childhood and its needs. So the blame for this verbal decrepitude must be distributed widely. Television, naturally, is a major culprit, not only because of the massive amount of time it absorbs from the lives of children but because of the passive nature of the viewing. Moreover, the total unsuitability of television to the minds of young children is well-known by now: the fleeting images that give them no opportunity to internalize or to respond to what they see and hear as well as the almost total lack of richness and originality in the use of language.

The *Newsweek* article claimed that one of the causes of the current crisis is that secondary schools no longer require the wide reading students need in order to write properly. Rather pathetically, it went on to say—

> There is no question in the minds of educators that a student who cannot read with true comprehension will never learn to write well. . . . Very little improvement in writing skills . . . is likely unless the educational establishment recaptures the earlier conviction that the written language is important. . . . One thing that is clearly needed is a renewed emphasis on reading as both a discipline and a diversion.

Now, American society has always managed to place the responsibility for its ills upon the schools. The cry for back to basics, which comes perilously close to throwing out the baby with the bath, is really a nostalgic yearning for a vanished era when life was less fraught with agonizing problems, when peace and order reigned, when teachers and parents were respected and supported one another, when science and technology were not threatening to betray the human race.

In the late fifties and early sixties, the hysteria after Sputnik resulted in a new stress on academic achievement; then the schools were charged with the crime of being cold institutions concerned not with human needs but only with test scores. So the schools responded again, this time with more humanistic approaches—the open classroom, education without walls, more emphasis on creativity, multimedia learning aids, and ever more innovation. And now the beleaguered schools are being called upon to return to so-called basics by a society that long ago turned its back on basics.

But there *are* some basic principles that I believe in rather passionately, and like most basic principles, they are actually rather simple.

Children, given the opportunity, respond spontaneously and joyously to books, for they have an inborn, primitive love of story. Narrative is not only a fundamental, primal form of expression—there's a *real* basic for you!—but it is also a print-oriented society's way of indulging in an ancient, universal practice. We put into stories the expression of our experiences in life. One immediately thinks of fables, parables, and moral tales; but all narrative subtly injects meaning into life, and stories contain so many more possibilities for each of us than does life itself.

The rightful heritage of children is story material, which will provide them with models, patterns, and symbolic figures for their own imaginative thinking. Stories help children make sense of the world—and of their own experiences. We all acknowledge by now that stories can promote sympathy and compassion; but they also enable children to detach themselves from their own personal preoccupations and, in seeing what happens to other people, to begin to universalize personal meanings. And, of course, the story content of television is pretty shoddy and watered-down—very far away from the great themes of folktales, myths, and, ultimately, of fiction.

Thus we must present to children the essence of literature and the literary experience—the ancient power of poets and storytellers. Start with nursery rhymes and simple folktales; go on to the marvelously vivid but economical prose of *Peter Rabbit* and then to the riches to be found in any good library. For here in literature is our link with undebased language.

Every day the child experiences so much that is new and confusing—events, feelings, ideas, information. Language helps to articulate the confusion; the writer's genius is that he uses the same tool everyone else uses, only he uses it more richly. Instead of struggling alone, the child, in reading, must meet the author halfway and thus becomes an autonomous learner.

And I am a great believer in the necessity—I almost said the urgency—of reaching out to the emotions of children and young people. Thoughtful and zealous teachers are all too frequently confronted by students whose sensibilities have been undernourished by the junk food of popular culture—students who are what George Leonard once called "emotional imbeciles, sensory ignoramuses, somatic dumbbells." Titillated and distracted by the superficiality and fragmentation of television programs, young people have become calloused, unreflective, and immunized against feeling.

Perhaps the greatest aim of education should be to turn children into humane human beings; and perhaps books that can arouse slumbering emotions—books that can make children *feel*—can help us with our jobs. I know that hundreds of children and teachers

and librarians have been moved to unabashed tears by Katherine Paterson's *Bridge to Terabithia*. C. S. Lewis, in an essay on the teaching of English, said, "The task of the modern educator is not to cut down jungles but to irrigate deserts." We can surely try, through literature, to irrigate the deserts of young minds and to reclaim the wastelands of boredom in which so many children are hopelessly lost.

Let me go on and try to enunciate more of my basic principles—my eternal truths, you might call them, for they have been the underlying themes of the work that I have done all my life.

First, we must make available to children an abundance of books, and they must hear literature read aloud every day. Literary language is heard; then come the desire and the ability to read. It has been stated as axiomatic that children cannot begin to read what they have not heard spoken.

Our language is perhaps the richest in the world, and through daily reading aloud, children are introduced not only to an appreciation of literature but also to the heritage of their own tongue. For disabled readers the process is even more urgent, since they are normally cut off from the pleasures of literature and of literary language. Moreover, reading aloud to children is an act of sharing, and nothing more effectively binds generations together and bridges the gap between the adult and the child.

Margaret M. Clark of the University of Strathclyde in Glasgow wrote a fine book called *Young Fluent Readers* in which she explores the mystery of those children who magically arrive at reading early and spontaneously. Studying the children in a working-class community, she found that these children—the early readers—came from families in which visits to the public library were a vital, consistent part of a weekly schedule and that the parents, as children, had loved stories; without intellectualizing the process, they simply read to their own children what they had loved themselves as readers.

Second, what happens when the child gets to school? We all know how faithfully teachers pursue "reading readiness"; but then they place before the child the most unexciting, bland, and flavorless prose illustrated with unexciting, bland, flavorless artwork—all packaged within shiny, washable, serviceable covers. Small wonder that nowadays, especially, young children eagerly turn to the activity and stimulation of the images on a television screen.

Schools can do a fairly good job of inhibiting and restricting young children's language. Compare their potential in language—or their ability to comprehend—with the language of a basal reader; observe the reduction in both quality and quantity. Think of the impoverished texts that are placed before small children, and see what constraints we place on their expectations and anticipations of the books and reading to come.

Connie Rosen in a remarkable book, *The Language of Primary School Children*, tells of a six-year-old who said she had discovered a quick way to read a page in her reader. She would read it *down*—vertically—and say, "Come, come, come, come, see, see, see, see, go, go, go, look, look, look," and so forth, picking out the words she saw repeated. The author says, "She had discovered the nonevent of the language on the page and her gobbledygook was just as good as the stuff that was printed. 'Reading a page' did not even remotely mean to her following someone else's thoughts."

If a reading series must be used, it is important to get on to trade books as quickly as possible. Take Pat Hutchins' *Rosie's Walk*, for example. So much happens in the pictures that is not indicated in the text, the child is drawn into the book and will talk about it. It is difficult to think of a child who would not be ensnared by Arnold Lobel's *Frog and Toad* stories in the Harper and Row *I Can Read* series; the language is simple but beautiful, the unfolding stories humorous and irresistible. Not to mention the pictures, which provide an early introduction to aesthetics and might well help to combat the debasing visual influences that surround young children today.

Now let's examine the teacher's role in the development of literate young readers. First of all, I know that many educators simply do not believe in the importance of imaginative literature—fiction, folktale, legend, poetry—and have never experienced this kind of reading themselves. I know reading specialists—good ones, conscientious ones—who admit that they almost never read for pleasure, that they know little about children's books or the reading interests of children. Obviously, the teaching of reading as a skill must be enhanced by adults—teachers, librarians, and parents—whose fascination with reading for its own sake is contagious. The reading child depends upon the reading adult: it is as simple as that. Or to turn it around, as Aidan Chambers did in *The Horn Book:* "To put it crudely, illiterates are made by illiterates." Children must observe

teachers who read for enjoyment, who give books an important place in their lives. Teachers must transmit themselves to children as *readers*, and they must also have a deep and broad knowledge of books for children.

How many people see literature as a substitute for the real business of living, a secondary, vicarious experience and not something for normal, active people? How many look upon books as mere resources—utilitarian commodities like globes or laboratory equipment or encyclopedias—using books as information banks?

I have found (and tripped over) various stumbling blocks in the way of making children into literate readers. Here are a few, seen entirely from the point of view of my own prejudices:

1. The gross misrepresentation of the art of literature in cheap, tawdry audiovisual form, especially in filmstrips, which repeat all the banalities of the worst television. I once wrote an article on this subject for *The Horn Book Magazine* called "Literature Bedeviled"; copies of it are still available.

2. The emphasis on speed in reading. I suggest that speed readers often fail to savor the full quality of a literary work and to comprehend the author's intentions. Experts recently have cast doubt on the advisability and the results of stressing speed reading.

3. The way literature is studied in schools. C. S. Lewis once said that he knew of no better way to turn children against books than to pull responses from them; we want to generate a positive pleasure in reading and not use the book as a tool for extracting from the child the answers to questions that ruin the whole process. Literary dissection and tortured analogies by children too young to engage in criticism can be terribly defeating. Helen Gardner, the Oxford professor, wrote, "The attempt to train young people in this kind of discrimination seems to me to be a folly, if not a crime. The young need, on the one hand, to be encouraged to read for themselves, widely, voraciously, and indiscriminately; and, on the other, to be helped to read with more enjoyment and understanding what their teachers have found to be of value." But this needs to be done without forcing pitifully inept judgments; the natural responses of children will grow more sophisticated as they mature.

Here are some questions that I have found in recent books dealing with children's literature for elementary schools:

Johnny Tremain: Was Johnny real or made up? Why do you think so? Is Boston an actual city? What leads you to think so? Is the main action physical or imaginary?

Harriet the Spy: Who is the main character? Is it someone who really lived? Or was made up for the story? Is the main action of the story physical or something that takes place in the imagination? Where does the action happen? Is it a real place? When does the story take place?

These insistent, nonproductive questions can absolutely stop the flow of the child's own ideas by circumscribing his or her thinking. Then there is the ever-present attempt to enliven the ubiquitous book report with old devices thinly disguised as new approaches. Just as ruinous are the prepackaged, predigested kits—removing the teacher from the one responsibility he or she must never abdicate: the necessity of reading for himself or herself and sharing a living, vital work with children. And I have always suspected that the emphasis on creativity—endless dioramas, murals, posters, and book jackets inspired by stories—often leads to a deemphasis on the perception of literature, which can get bogged down in busywork. The teacher must be the vital factor in the connection between the child and the book. A child can talk about a book and enliven the talk with his or her knowledge of language and life; one can perceive the child projecting outward from the book into his or her own imaginings in order to penetrate inward into the book's meaning. And thus the story or the poem can be placed in the child's own world and made part of his or her life. Children cannot really engage in literary criticism, but they *can* express their responses in their own way. Most of us do the same thing, anyway.

4. The specter that haunts all lovers of literature is what is popularly known as bibliotherapy—not the legitimate clinical sort used by training therapists, but the practice of prescribing books like pills to help children solve specific personal problems and, indeed, to achieve many of the aims of general education. Just as our forebears produced a literature of piety and morality, designed to instruct, improve, and admonish the young, many adults now yield to similar temptations—which could send us straight back to the blighted children's literature of the early nineteenth century. For it is a cruel and futile misuse of literature to track down messages in children's books. No one would deny that books can be powerful instruments for moral and intellectual growth and for the development of awareness; but an imaginative work of art is not a political or a social tract, nor should its purpose be rhetorical persuasion or moral improvement. Authors cannot assume the roles of teacher, mentor, preacher; they are artists, and books viewed as tools or as sugarcoated nostrums cease to exist in their own right and become simply the raw material from which lessons are hammered out. Any writer with conviction, who has something to say about life—about what it means to be human—cannot fail to reveal something of his or her views to the reader. Thus, for a child, circumscribed in a miniature world, books can open doors to an understanding of himself or herself, and, ultimately, of the universe.

We must return, finally, to the teacher and to his or her conviction of the educative power of literature. C. S. Lewis referred to the implicitly therapeutic function of literature when he wrote that it "admits us to experiences other than our own. . . .Those of us who have been true readers all our life seldom fully realize the enormous extension of our being which we owe to authors. . . .My own eyes are not enough for me, I will see through those of others. . . .Literary experience heals the wound, without undermining the privilege, of individuality." So teachers and librarians, from the wisdom born of a knowledge of children and of books, can invite the spontaneous responses of the young, encouraging them, by example, to seek for themselves the deep satisfactions of unlimited, unreluctant reading. □

Ms. Heins spoke at greater length on this subject at the 1979 annual meeting of the International Reading Association in Atlanta, Georgia. Copyright © 1980 by Ethel L. Heins.

Every day, Barbara Marshall leaves her parents' home in northern Virginia for her job in Washington, DC. She takes a bus, then the subway into town, then another bus out Massachusetts Avenue to Vice-President Mondale's residence. The guards at the gate know her. She goes to the greenhouse, confers briefly with her supervisor, and sets to work, planting, watering, pruning, transplanting—providing for fresh flower beds and cut flowers as the seasons change.

Barbara is deaf and legally blind. Her speech is not readily understandable; she is teaching her supervisor sign language. But she's a delightful young person, says the supervisor, and more than that: she's good, very good, with the plants. She knows her job.

Barbara was trained as a horticultural assistant at the Arlington (Virginia) Career Center. This training prepared her for productive and satisfying work.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND THE HANDICAPPED

"If I weren't getting training in school," said 17-year-old Gena, "I'd probably be going to work at a day-care center when I finish. I like kids, but I don't think I could take being with them all the time. I prefer what I'm learning now—typing, filing, and talking on the phone.

"I've had to work hard in the vocational classes, but if it weren't for them, I'd be skipping school, failing, and not getting anywhere in life."

This was Gena's reply when I asked her about the value of vocational training. She had found her niche in a clerical practices course.

In her first years in school, Gena's progress was slower than that of most of her classmates. In the sixth grade, she was diagnosed as having minimal brain injury and began receiving special education services.

She had problems until she entered vocational training. Now, her attitude and outlook are as beautiful as the glowing smile that lights her face when she describes her career plans—plans that had not even begun to develop until she entered her first vocational class.

By TERRY MOYNAHAN
Instructor, Vocational Education for the Handicapped, Austin (Texas) Independent School District.

As an instructor of a vocational education for the handicapped (VEH) class, I am interested in the impressions of students who are participating in vocational programs. I have spoken with many such students—both those presently enrolled in classes and those who were formerly enrolled—and know their opinions to be of great value in determining strengths and weaknesses of the programs.

When students discuss these programs, their comments usually center on several topics: the motivation and direction the programs give them, the self-confidence they develop as a result of developing skills, the pace of the classes and the number of students in them, the characteristics of their teachers, and the accessibility of various courses.

- Some students say vocational education motivates them to go to school and gives them direction. For example, Gena had had problems with attendance and lack of direction. She said, "I used to skip school a lot before I got into the clerical practices class. I really felt left out. I guess people thought because I was in a special ed class that I was stupid, that I didn't know any-

thing. I think that once I began getting training and knew where I was going I didn't let them put me down anymore. I told them I could do just as good as they could, and I proved it, too."

In Gena's case, vocational education helped motivate her to a more serious approach to education and put an end to her attendance problems, also. "Once I was in the clerical course I looked forward to it, so I was in school all the time. When you get into activities you really like, you don't skip."

• Students also repeatedly mention that vocational education builds self-confidence. Tracey, a student in a clerical course, discussed this subject. "I'm much better at typing now than I ever thought I could be, although I had taken a typing class before. The difference between the two is the confidence I have now because the teacher I have now understands that I learn slow and goof up. If the teacher gives you a hard time, you lose confidence. But you can regain it if the teacher takes time with you."

Gena agreed. "As I developed skills, I developed confidence. My vocational teacher told me I could handle anything if I put my mind to it. I didn't believe it at first, but once I really got into it, I learned things."

At the end of the year in the VEH class, Gena had progressed enough to be placed in a vocational office education (VOE) course and in an on-the-job training program. Confident of herself and her VOE teacher, Gena recognized that the new class was different from the VEH class. "In the VOE class, the work's a little harder, and they don't go as slow as I'm used to, but I'm catching on. If it weren't for the VEH class, I might be failing the VOE class."

A former student, Carlos, who was classified as language/learning disabled, agreed with Gena. "I got to the point [in the VEH class] where I was going just a little faster than before and got promoted to a more advanced program."

Both students had acquired enough skills, knowledge, and confidence in the VEH class to move into mainstream education.

Although many educators have expressed concern about integrating special-needs students into regular classes, the progress Carlos and Gena have made supports the contention that other special students who are placed in an appropriate environment can succeed also.

• Pace refers to the rate at which learning takes place. Class size determines the student-teacher ratio and therefore reflects the amount of help individual learners can get from the teacher. Because the pace and class size are right in VEH classes, students notice the lack of pressure associated with completing tasks within designated time intervals.

Gena: "The best thing about my vocational training is that the work is not so hard at first. It's at a pace that is comfortable. The work increases gradually as you go along with your lessons, but the deadlines are reasonable. No unnecessary rush, and you get your work done."

Richard, a former student who is now doing prefab residential framing, added, "If there were more students, there wouldn't be enough time for everyone to get enough help." He said he had felt comfortable with a student-teacher ratio of about 10 to 1.

• In commenting on the characteristics of teachers, students expressed a strong preference for teachers who are sensitive and humane.

Tracey: "I had a lot of problems with attendance before I started Mrs. S's class. I wanted to quit school. But Mrs. S. understands me, and I'm bringing up my grades."

"We get more help and patience from our VEH teacher, and the students have more patience, too," Claire, another student in a vocational class, added.

These comments point out some distinct advantages that VEH teachers have over regular vocational teachers. The most important is their experience and training in dealing with handicapped students.

• In discussing accessibility of courses, special-needs students often feel that they get the "short end of the stick." It's difficult not to agree with them to some extent.

Handicapped students often find themselves training in fields for which they have little interest, simply because VEH course offerings do not include training in the area of their primary vocational interest.

Commenting on accessibility, Carlos, who is out of school and working successfully as a carpenter, ventured, "I don't think there are enough classes for special students. They can't get training for many careers. If a guy wants to take a regular vocational class and they know he's special ed, he may not be able to take it. And where's he going to be standing? Outside. He might have to settle for second or third choice."

Seven years after the passage of the Rehabilitation Act (PL 93-112) and five years after the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142), special-needs students are participating in a wide range of vocational programs. Some special students are progressing satisfactorily in regular classes, and many are setting their own pace in recently developed special-needs programs.

Yet a surprising number of students finish their education with embarrassingly limited vocational training. One reason is the limited funding available for expanding vocational programs for the handicapped.

Another problem is the difficulty of placing students in an appropriate program. Probably because of the limited number of programs, some students are placed inappropriately, and these students do not experience the success that others do.

Two important characteristics of students who are successful in these programs are a specific career interest in the particular training program and a general readiness for vocational training. Lacking these qualities, students seldom succeed in the class. More prevocational programs are needed to help students develop an interest in a particular career while acquiring readiness skills such as the ability to follow instructions, stay on task, and control behavior.

Special-needs vocational students do not doubt the value of vocational education. Rather, they take advantage of available opportunities to develop skills, knowledge, and attitudes that will prepare them for mainstream education and permanent employment. For the most part, they are overwhelmingly positive about their experiences. They speak proudly of the confidence gained from jobs well done and of their dreams for the future. □

WHAT'S HAPPENING IN NEW JERSEY?

At the New Jersey Education Association (NJEA), an important part of our job is to provide organizational assistance to local associations on instructional issues. Recently, our phones have been ringing continually with calls from anxious vocational educators. They are seeking help with questions about the placement of handicapped students in their classes. Some of these questions and their answers follow:

By CHARLES W. WALKER, JR.
Associate Director of Instruction, New Jersey Education Association.

What does the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (PL 94-142) say about mainstreaming handicapped children into regular school classes?

The word *mainstreaming* does not appear in the new federal regulations on PL 94-142. The federal regulations mandate that to the maximum extent possible, and where appropriate, handicapped students should be provided education in the "least restrictive environment." For some students this "least restrictive environment" is not a regular classroom.

The federal regulations mandate that decisions on the placement of handicapped students be made only after formal evaluation and classification of the student and development of an individualized education program (IEP) for the student. The student's teachers, the parents, and the student, where appropriate, are all supposed to take part in this process.

Some districts, without proper planning and consideration, have mistakenly scheduled all handicapped students into regular classrooms, thinking that by doing this, they are complying with federal law.

When this has happened—and it shouldn't—the phones at NJEA start to ring.

HOW THREE LAWS ARE CHANGING THE PICTURE

Three major pieces of legislation are giving strong impetus to efforts to expand vocational services for the handicapped. Together these laws have the power to create opportunities long overdue for handicapped persons to participate fully in the mainstream of society. Here's how the three laws fit together and reinforce one another.

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142) establishes the right of every handicapped child to a free appropriate education in "the least restrictive environment." In the words of the law, this includes the right to appropriate vocational education.

The law sets forth the following provisions:

- Every state that receives funds under the law must ensure that a free appropriate education is provided for all handicapped children aged three to 18 who are found to be in need of special education and related services. [No later than September 1, 1980, states must ensure such an education for all handicapped people aged 19 to 21 as well.]
- Individualized education programs (IEP's) must be drawn up for children on all school levels—from preschool through high school. These must be reviewed annually.
- Individually designed education services must be provided not only for children in classrooms but for handicapped children who are homebound or in hospitals or in institutions, or private agencies if the public school places them there.
- Teachers, along with parents and, when appropriate, the

Recently, for example, a vocational education teacher called and said excitedly—

Yesterday, four handicapped students classified as emotionally disturbed were put into my metal shop class, which already had 22 students in it.

There are only 20 work stations in the shop. Now I have 26 students!

I received no instructions from my supervisors on how to work with these new students. I have no certification or course work whatsoever in education of the handicapped.

What's going to happen when we start to use machinery and tools that can be dangerous? I fear for the safety of the four new students and the other 22 as well.

The administration tells me that, in a month or two, they will provide an instructional guide to help me. Meanwhile, they say, "Stay cool. Mainstreaming is mandated by the government, and these students must stay in your class."

Is this true? Help!

What provisions have been made to ensure appropriate class size in classes that have handicapped students?

The class size issue is not adequately addressed in federal regulations. Moreover, most states and local districts have no requirements about maximum class sizes for regular classrooms.

Several states, however, have regulations on the maximum class sizes and/or pupil-teacher ratios for various kinds of self-contained special education classes that a certified teacher of the handicapped teaches. New Jersey is one. Chapter 28 of the New Jersey Administrative Code sets the following maximum number of pupils for self-contained classes for special students:

Auditorily handicapped—eight pupils
Chronically ill—15 pupils
Communication handicapped—eight pupils
Emotionally disturbed—eight pupils
Mentally retarded—educable—15 pupils
Mentally retarded—eligible for day training—nine pupils per classroom with a pupil-staff ratio of 3 to 1
Mentally retarded—trainable—10 pupils
Multiple handicapped—eight pupils
Neurologically impaired—eight pupils
Orthopedically handicapped—10 pupils
Perceptually impaired—12 pupils
Socially maladjusted—12 pupils
Visually handicapped—eight pupils.

These requirements recognize that handicapped students deserve special attention on an individualized basis when in the hands of a specially certified teacher. Unfortunately, the regulations for PL 94-142 set no requirements for maximum class size or pupil-to-teacher ratio for the regular classroom into which handicapped students are placed and where there is no specially certified teacher of the handicapped. Moreover, New Jersey and most other states have set no such requirements.

It is perfectly legal in most schools to integrate 20 or more handicapped students at one time into a vocational education classroom or any other regular classroom. The implications of this are perhaps most critical in the vocational ed class because of the possible danger to students from equipment. The job of the vocational education teacher becomes almost an impossibility.

Vocational education teachers are very aware of the responsibility they have to ensure that students are trained to use equipment properly. If students are injured in their classes, these teachers face the possibility of being sued or being held liable.

Therefore, they should be aware of what kind of liability provisions their state law contains. If it has no save- or hold-harmless provision to protect teachers against financial loss for acts of negligence committed in the line of duty, the teachers association, where state law permits, should bargain an indemnification and hold-harmless clause as part of its collective bargaining agreement.

Even if the state law does have a hold-harmless provision, it is advisable for teachers to incorporate it as a part of their contract. This would allow them to bring cases involving questions

student, must be included in conferences about decisions affecting each student's IEP. The school administration is responsible for seeing that all service personnel who work with a handicapped student are informed about, and involved in implementing, the student's IEP.

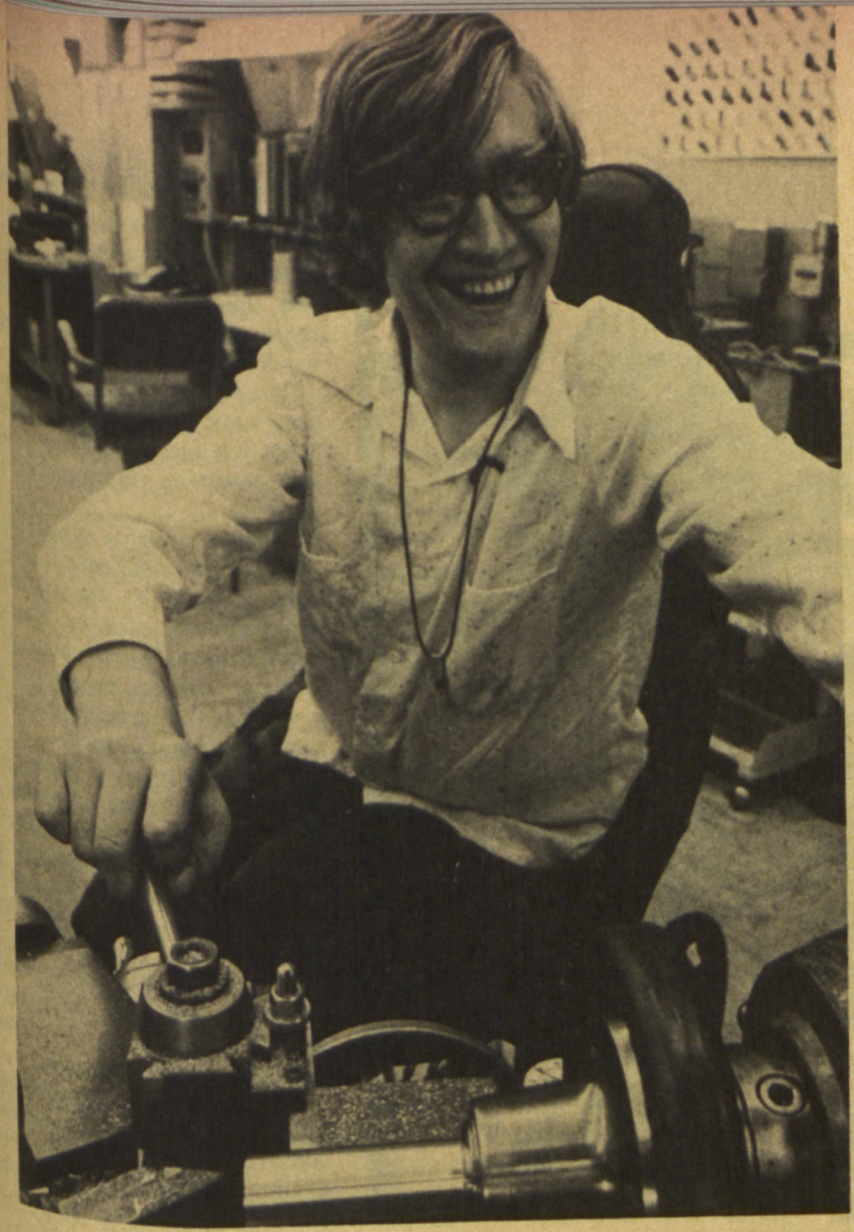
It would be well for teachers to keep in mind that IEP's must include necessary vocational services where appropriate. At the junior high school and senior high school levels, it is particularly important to include appropriate vocational education and to be sure that each student is afforded equal opportunity to acquire the knowledge and the skills to become self-sufficient.

The Vocational Education Act Amendments of 1976 (PL 94-482) was passed to strengthen the abilities of states to provide vocational education—especially to groups for whom the need is most acute, including the handicapped. This law has an important relationship to PL 94-142.

PL 94-482 provides funds for vocational services for handicapped students such as vocational guidance and counseling and job placement and follow-up services.

The law extends help not only to handicapped students but to disabled individuals of all ages who need vocational education. It requires that—

- Ten percent of federal funds allocated to states for vocational education be spent on the excess costs of making modifications (on equipment and facilities, for example) and for providing services and other activities to ensure appropriate education for handicapped students in regular or special vocational programs. These special funds may go to school districts for secondary school programs and also to postsecondary adult vocational education programs and community colleges.
- Funds not be allocated automatically. Local education systems (and postsecondary schools) must apply to states for a share of the money.
- Vocational education programs that use these funds in secondary schools carry out the goals of PL 94-142 and comply with its requirements. This means that all the rights guaranteed under PL 94-142 are extended to handicapped students served under the Vocational Education Act.
- Vocational education plans for a student be included in



Ken Kennedy spent the summer as the first handicapped student to participate in the Lawrence Livermore Laboratory's (LLL) machineshop training program. Kennedy, a machine tool technology student at Chabot College in Hayward, California, is paralyzed and has only limited use of his hands and arms.

Kennedy used a special wheelchair that he designed for use in a machine shop. Using an electric motor, the wheelchair raises and lowers like a forklift, allowing Kennedy to work safely with lathes, milling machines, and other heavy equipment.

Based on Kennedy's success, LLL's machine-shop program will now be open to other disabled students working at the Laboratory.

LLL is operated by the University of California for the U.S. Department of Energy.

his or her IEP.

• Advisory councils be set up—on both state and local levels. The state council must include vocational education teachers presently teaching in local education agencies and "one or more individuals...who have special knowledge, experience, or qualifications with respect to the special education needs of physically or mentally handicapped persons." Although the law does not require representation of the handicapped on local advisory councils, teachers and advocacy groups can and should press for consumer representation to speak for the rights and needs of disabled individuals.

• Five-year state plans be drawn up in order for a state to receive funding under this law. Plans must show how the 10 percent allotment will be used to meet the needs of handicapped individuals and how vocational education programs will coordinate with special education programs. These plans must be updated annually.

In drawing up such plans, a state must gather the views of many people, including teachers, parents, administrators, and school board members. Hearings must be held to give everyone concerned a chance to speak up. It is important for teachers to study these plans carefully to see how responsive they are to existing needs.

• Local school systems submit annual plans to the state, outlining how they propose to meet vocational education needs and what programs they want to start or expand. Teachers should find out when hearings will be held on these plans. Their input is crucial.

Teachers, parents, and consumers can get copies of proposed plans, information about when and where hearings will be held, and other facts about vocational education in their area by contacting appropriate state and local officials. (Each state has a coordinator of vocational education for the handicapped in the Division of Vocational Education in its Department of Education.)

Teachers can find out from their local UniServ representatives who is responsible for these services in their local school systems. (Note: When requesting a copy of state or local plans, teachers should ask that the section on services for handicapped students be identified and that they get copies of all updates and modifications of these plans.)

Equal opportunities must be provided for handicapped students to be educated and trained for work.

of teacher liability under the purview of an arbitrator.

Will prospective vocational teachers and those already in the classroom receive proper training on teaching the handicapped?

The key to making vocational education work and work well for handicapped students is proper preservice and in-service training for vocational teachers.

College students preparing for careers in vocational education need adequate courses at the undergraduate and graduate levels on educating the handicapped. These courses should provide specific experiences in the classroom and include methods of educating the handicapped.

Providing suitable preservice training for vocational ed teachers may sound like an easy task to accomplish, but few college courses on teaching vocational subjects to the handicapped exist—even though it has been more than two years since PL 94-142 went into effect. New teachers continue to be employed in new vocational ed positions with no preservice training on educating the handicapped.

In-service training programs for vocational ed teachers present special considerations. In 31 states where bargaining laws exist, the terms and conditions of a contract may dictate re-

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 affects both of these laws. It is a civil rights law and prohibits discrimination on the basis of handicap in private or public programs that receive federal financial assistance. If such programs violate Section 504, they may lose their federal funds.

Regulations for Section 504 spell out obligations of agencies that receive federal funds and have a sweeping effect on public school programs for handicapped students—including vocational education programs. In addition to reaffirming every handicapped student's right to a free appropriate education, the law includes the following important requirements:

- Handicapped persons must have opportunities to participate in, or benefit from, services equal to those that are provided to others.
- Postsecondary vocational programs and colleges that receive federal funds may not discriminate against otherwise qualified applicants on the basis of their handicaps, and they are required to make accommodations so that qualified handicapped students can participate in their programs. The U.S. Supreme Court has held, however, in the case of *Southeastern Community College, V, Davis*, that "nothing in the language or history of Section 504 reflects an intention to limit the freedom of an educational institution to require reasonable physical qualifications for admission to a clinical training program."
- All programs and services must be readily accessible to handicapped individuals. These may be made accessible by changing their locations or providing alternative ways or delivery systems for handicapped individuals to participate in and benefit from them. Agencies and organizations, including schools and colleges, have until June 1980 to make necessary structural changes.

These three laws have similar tough provisions. All three call for equal opportunities for handicapped students to be educated and trained for work. □

This article has been adapted from "Vocational Education—An End to Dependency," which appeared in the Summer 1978 issue of *Common Sense from Closer Look*, a publication of the Parent's Campaign for Handicapped Children and Youth.

quirements for such programs. Negotiating provisions for these programs, such as costs, time schedules, and released time for teachers, can become complicated. Even in states where bargaining laws do not exist, boards of education must consider these aspects of in-service programs.

PL 94-142 provides money to states for in-service training through "comprehensive personnel development funds." These funds have not yet created many meaningful in-service training programs for vocational ed teachers, because of the time that elapses between the appropriation of funds and their use at the local level. The money filters from the federal government to the state and then the local district. The local district has ultimate responsibility for making in-service work, regardless of what seed money filters down from above.

Vocational ed teachers should be directly involved in determining what kinds of in-service programs will best help them meet the unique needs of their students. All too often, in-service programs are geared for the regular classroom teachers of academic subjects. At best, these programs give teachers general information about handicapped students.

Vocational ed teachers need this information, of course, but they also need to know how to ensure the safety of handicapped students around machinery, behavior characteristics of the different types of handicapped individuals, vocational teaching methods for the handicapped, and a long list of other subjects.

It takes four to five years of full-time college course work to become a certified teacher of the handicapped. The vocational ed teacher cannot be expected to gain similar—and necessary—knowledge for teaching the handicapped at one in-service session.

In some districts, some of the time, handicapped students are working well in vocational ed programs. Turning these superb exceptions into the rule will take time, money, consideration, and commitment. Federal and state regulations may have to be revised and enforced if vocational educators are to be equipped with the resources and support they need in order to meet the needs of all of their students. ☐

Q and A

Recently, Brenda Fox, professional associate, NEA Instruction and Professional Development, discussed vocational education for the handicapped with William D. Halloran, State Plan Officer, in what was then USOE's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. Excerpts from their discussion follow.

What developments do you see in the 1980's in the field of vocational education for the handicapped?

There is going to be much more emphasis on accountability. By that I mean that taxpayers are going to ask, "Is all that investment in education for the handicapped worth it?" and parents of the handicapped are going to ask, "Will that education prepare our children to function independently when they're adults?" So the real questions will be, "Has the intervention of education made any difference in the adult life-styles of handicapped persons?" "Are they better adjusted and more suitably employed than they would otherwise have been?"

Traditionally, in special education, we attempted to raise the academic level of handicapped students to a certain norm, and we bombarded them with a lot of remedial education. But the acquisition of basic skills does not translate into making someone healthy, wealthy, and wise. So we're going to have to ask, "What are the skills necessary to survive as a participating member of the community?"

So I think in the eighties, we're going to see an emphasis on the identification of what employers—in business and industry—mean by a qualified worker, and schools are going to assume a responsibility for developing handicapped individuals who are qualified for jobs. Other agencies have a part to play, too, of course.

What would you advise teachers to do to increase vocational opportunities for handicapped students?

Accentuate students' abilities and identify and teach the competencies necessary for them to be employed as skilled workers. You know where I'm coming from on that? I'm saying that rather than treating the education of handicapped students as a charitable cause, teachers are going to have to sell their handicapped students as persons with marketable skills.

What is the biggest problem facing teachers in this area?

Their lack of experience in the work setting. As products of traditional training programs, many teachers are unfamiliar with the skills necessary to succeed in a variety of different jobs.

What are the characteristics of a good vocational program for handicapped students?

One that takes into account three things when defining its broad instructional goals: the needs of students, the demands that society will be placing upon those students when they are adults, and the expectations of employers. If it's not a saleable skill, why teach it? The training should be relevant to the marketplace and directed toward equipping students with the skills they need to become functional members of our communities.

What are your hopes for the future in this field?

That public education agencies will employ more handicapped individuals.

If you go into a public school nowadays, it looks different from what it would have 10 years ago. You will probably see a group of kids with a variety of disabilities participating in all aspects of the school program. But you would be hard pressed to see a handicapped teacher or administrator. Hopefully, in the future, the handicapped will be part of the instructional staff. ☐

For more information about vocational education and the handicapped, contact the NEA-IPD Information Center, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20036.

Outdoor Education Can Help the Handicapped

Three years ago, 13 severely disabled students were integrated into my high school. Their disabilities include cerebral palsy, blindness, learning disabilities, and emotional problems.

At first, staff members noticed that these students were able to handle the academics with some extra support, and most teachers accepted having them in their classes. A problem, however, was that the 13 were isolated at other times of the day. I would hear of Ted, our blind student, eating lunch by himself or of Eric, who has cerebral palsy, being at a basketball game alone.

One of the reasons the handicapped students were having trouble relating to the other students was that they had not had the same social experiences as the others. Most of the 13 had previously been enrolled in overprotective special schools and had been treated by their parents as if they were younger than they were. To be accepted by the other students, they needed to be taught how to be with-it.

In an attempt to teach these kids social skills, I organized them into a club called the Orinda Connection. To get the club started, the members elected officers and put notices in the school bulletin about their meetings. Word got around about the group, and they started having visitors. A young man with learning disabilities and a young woman with cerebral palsy, both college students from the community, joined the group and provided excellent role models for the 13. A few nonhandicapped students from the high school joined, too.

The members started eating lunch together, calling one another on the phone, and dating. They organized groups to go to school games and dances. Certainly, they looked different from the regular crowd, and they did get plenty of stares; but the so-called normal students were beginning to notice the similarities they shared with the handicapped students.

As a club project, the group entered a float at Homecoming. Since the theme was periods of history, the Connection borrowed a convertible and decorated it with signs that said, How the West Was Won. David, one of the college students, drove while the rest of the members, who were dressed up like cowboys, Indians, and dance-hall girls, rode in the car or walked beside it. Again, the disabled students looked different, but they were doing what was socially appropriate for high school students. Moreover, the kids were educating the public about what disabled students *can* do.

In the fall of 1978, Otis McCain, a physiology teacher at Miramonte High School and an advocate of outdoor education, approached the group about going to a Yosemite Institute program the following April. (The Yosemite Institute is an independent, nonprofit,

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A Yosemite Institute instructor introduces disabled students to the great outdoors.

environmental education organization. Based in Yosemite National Park, the Institute operates year-round from campus facilities in the Park and in Golden Gate National Recreation Area.) The group was interested, and Odie—as we call McCain—contacted the Institute staff and learned that they offered an outdoor education program for disabled students.

Odie and I started planning the trip. About half of our students were too frightened of the project to even consider taking part in the program or were too young to be eligible to take part. We invited the others and their parents to a slide-show presentation about the activities of the Institute. Odie talked about cross-country skiing, long hikes, and sleeping in tents on snow-covered ground. When we asked for questions or concerns, the parents wondered whether or not the kids could survive such a program. Many of the students had never been away from their parents. I began to have my concerns, too, but the kids—except for Ted—were all for it. After all, what teenager can wait to get away from parents?

Ted, the only one to voice his reluctance, kept asking, "Are you going to make me go?" I told him he had to make his own decision, and I thought to myself that he wasn't ready to leave his parents.

Well, Ted ended up going with the rest of us to the Institute, and after one day at Yosemite, he became our most enthusiastic participant. He gained a sense of independence that enabled him to make another important decision a few months later: to go away from home to attend a seven-week summer course at a self-reliance institute for the blind. The week at Yosemite taught Ted that taking risks pays off.

We were one of many high school groups that week at Yosemite but the only group with disabled students. Each school group formed its own hiking groups, but everyone had breakfast and dinner together in one big cafeteria. After dinner, all the kids had a meeting or gathered to listen to guitar music in the lounge. They integrated beautifully.

Each day after breakfast, our group split into two hiking groups. Chuck Harris and Frank Beale, our leaders, who were environmental education instructors, had never worked with disabled students before. I had sent them forms describing the students' strengths and weaknesses, but the students had such a variety of disabilities that Chuck and Frank could not tell from the forms what the students could or couldn't do. After getting to know them, Chuck and Frank quickly adapted the Institute's regular outdoor education program to fit the students' needs.

Frank had the more mobile of our two groups. Although his group had poor physical balance and emotional problems, they built shelters, explored caves, climbed rocks—even walked on logs to cross a river. They were given the opportunity to take risks, and they responded by doing so. Not once did any member refuse to take part in an activity.

Chuck had the students who had difficulty walking or the one in a wheelchair. He would carefully pace the all-day hikes so that his group had rest breaks, which were especially needed by those who were pushing the wheelchairs. At these stops, he would take his journal out of his backpack and read the words of people like John Muir, a famous naturalist, that pertained to the moment or the location. These magical times in meadows or on mountain tops opened the kids up to sharing their feelings. They discussed ecology in relation to their lives.

One day our two groups came together for a day of skiing at Crane Flat. Everyone except Diane, who is confined to a wheelchair, got on to cross-country skis or an inner tube. A few of us had trouble, but we didn't give up easily. Kids who had been told all their lives that they have coordination problems were skiing down slopes on skinny cross-country skis. Their self-confidence grew in those risk-taking moments.

As the person most likely to be held responsible by the parents for any mishaps, I felt my heart stop only once. I was watching the kids come down the slope on skis or on inner tubes. Eric, an extremely tall, good-looking, boy with cerebral palsy, flew down the slope in a tube that was heading for a large tree. Our school counselor, Bob Campbell, who was on skis, tried to stop him, but the flying tube knocked him over. Eric crashed into the tree; picked himself up; and with a big smile, announced he was going to do it again. This time he wanted someone to take a picture. After that day in the snow, I realized I had underestimated many of my students.

On our last day at Yosemite, Chuck, the Institute leader of the severely disabled group, had the impossible in mind. He scooped Diane out of her wheelchair, placed her on his back, and carried her for a mile and a half up the mountain trail. Ted followed with a sighted guide. After Ted came Peter, who has cerebral palsy, with me behind him holding on to his belt so he wouldn't fall off the mountain. Pam, who has Down's syndrome, and Jerry, who is retarded, followed me. Cecilie, who is also retarded, and Tammy, who is emotionally disturbed, followed them. In the rear was Gene Oliver, our district special education administrator, with camera in hand, loving every moment. (Mr. Oliver had joined us for our last two days at Yosemite.)

We were all in a state of euphoria when we hit the top of the mountain. That moment will always be something special to me; we had climbed to the top on John Muir's birthday.

The only way to measure the Yosemite experience is by observing its effect on the students. Even though they were at the Institute for just a week, the confidence that they gained in the outdoor program carried over into the classroom. Many of the regular teachers reported that these students were more independent in class assignments, participated more in class discussions, and related more positively to their classmates than they had before their week at the Institute. Many of the disabled students said they had found they could ski, hike, and get along away from home. The Institute also gave them the opportunity to help each other and themselves. One student, who had grooming problems, said, "I learned how to take a shower by myself."

After our week at Yosemite, one of the parents found a group that takes disabled people river rafting and backpacking—Environmental Traveling Companions (ETC), a nonprofit organization from San Francisco. Last

(continued on page 83)

"Are You Coming Back Next Year?"

By PATRICIA G. LAMB
English and Journalism Teacher, Campbell High School, Smyrna, Georgia.

At the end of last school year, the familiar nod of the head or the "How are you?" was replaced by a more pointed greeting as teachers met in hallways, cafeteria, lounge, or parking lot: "Are you coming back next year?"

It was contract time, and the big decision was whether to return—or whether the school board would let us return—for yet another year. I have always thought that the timing is all wrong, psychologically, for this contract ritual, especially for beginning teachers. Consider their circumstances: end of the year chaos, fatigue, no backlog of experience to offer reassurance that next year will be better, and the summer vacation ahead with nothing but great opportunities on the horizon.

In that last month of school, Are you coming back next year? became a code, a trigger for recital of the names of those who would not be returning to our ranks. As the list grew and grew, some self-appointed data gatherers even split their lists into the "for sures" and the "maybes." The for sures numbered around twenty, which represented approximately one-third of our teaching faculty. The list of maybes attained prodigious proportions. At first, I watched with amused detachment this comic opera: the asking of the question, the listing of the names, and the adding of names to the maybe list.

We were losing some valuable members of our faculty, and sadly, the

teaching profession was losing them, too. Most of those who had turned in their resignations were leaving the profession. They were either going directly into sales, management, industry, or real estate or else going back to school for training in new fields.

Those of us who were planning to stay did not stand up too well under the questioning of the data gatherers. A self-imposed feeling of inferiority began to creep into our psyches. Those who were leaving teaching were saying by their action that they found the profession unsuitable, for various reasons. Their rejection of teaching caused those of us who were staying to feel less worthy. We well understood their reasons for defecting and even rejoiced in their good fortune and new jobs.

A student of mine gave me a new insight into what was happening to the psyches of those of us who were staying when he said, "Seems that everyone who can do something else or isn't too old is leaving." I viewed the comment as an example of the brashness of youth and did not take it personally, since I considered myself neither inept nor aged. But the statement explained the psychology that was swelling the maybe list.

Few were willing to come right out and say, "Yes, I'll be back next year." Instead, they hedged with replies such as "Maybe" or "Well, I have something in the works" or "I'll just have to wait and see." I was as guilty as the next one. I felt as though I must apologize for coming back, for having no daring enterprise to announce to my colleagues.

Finally, one afternoon following a harried day of final examinations, I answered the question honestly. Several of us were gathered at a local watering hole for one of our attitude adjustment sessions. No one was asking the question; we were friends who knew quite well one another's intentions for next year. The conversation, nevertheless, worked its way around to a discussion of how many new faces we would be seeing on the faculty next year and how we would miss those of the assembled group who were going off to new careers.

The banter was warm and a bit silly until one of our group made a conciliatory remark. "I just wish I hadn't stayed in teaching as long as I have. Now it's too late to do something else," she said.

That remark lifted the veil from my eyes. Here was a teacher whose every action had bespoken pride in her profession. Yet, she had succumbed as had I to the subtle pressure that the exodus was having on many of us who planned to remain.

"Elizabeth," I said, "I don't believe a word of what you just said. You love teaching; you are very good at it. It's never too late to get out if you really want to."

"Easier said than done," she retorted—but everyone present, including those who were leaving, began to talk about the positive aspects of teaching.

It was the catharsis we needed. For too many weeks we had been focusing on the shortcomings of teaching: a salary not commensurate to the education required and the performance expected of its practitioners, the disproportionate amount of time teachers must spend on disciplining and policing instead of instructing, the excessive paperwork of a clerical nature, and the lack of respect for teachers' professional judgment.

These complaints are so universal that they really didn't need to be voiced. What did need to be voiced, however, were our reasons for teaching. We launched into these with a fervor I had not witnessed since college days, when as a prospective teacher, I had discussed what it would mean to be a teacher.

This current discussion, moreover, had much more substance than the ones during college days, because we had been there, we had looked at the mountain. We laughingly dispensed with the generally accepted pluses that teaching offers—a long summer vacation and a very nice holiday package—and talked of the others.

One member volunteered, "Well, I simply love working with young people. What other profession would afford me such an opportunity?"

"The unique opportunity to contribute to the growth of an individual," another offered.

"And what about the chance to be creative in your classroom—to be your own boss, more or less?" still another proffered.

"Since this is confession time, do you know why I go to football games? There are always alumni there who come up and tell me how much my math class helped them in college. Ego trip for me, I guess."

"As a coach, it's great to see the turnabout some guys have made in their lives because of their participation in athletics."

"I have to agree with you all," said the elder statesman of our group, "but none of you can probably yet understand why I teach. Quite simply, it keeps me young, in touch with now. Why, without it, I'd probably be like some of my erstwhile friends—totally withdrawn from today, living in the past, condemning everything about the present, and dwelling on my aches and pains.

"Although my students regard me as an old fossil, I know they like and respect me, and I have something to give them. I'm better than the history books I teach from when I give them firsthand accounts of America during World War II, of bread lines during the Depression, of public reaction to the bombing of Pearl Harbor. Of course, I'll admit I do get a bit perturbed when they ask me where I hid when Sherman burned Atlanta."

Another member said, "One thing's for sure: We know we're doing something important, and that matters to me. I realize that my students don't get as excited as I do about the digestive system of frogs, but it makes no difference whether we are teaching them subordinate clauses, anatomy, Roosevelt's New Deal, or dressmaking, we're teaching them about life. And that's exciting."

"Hear! Hear!" we all chorused.

"Hate to be the one to break up this therapy group," I said, "but I've got to run."

As I made my way out, I bumped into a member of our faculty whom I rarely saw. After the initial hellos, he assailed me with the predictable, "Are you coming back next year?"

For the first time in weeks, I didn't hesitate, I didn't quibble, I didn't hedge, I didn't even feel the need to qualify or apologize. I announced in a tone he probably thought much too emphatic, "Yes, I'll be back next year." □

"The Reign of ETS"

a brief summary of the Ralph Nader report on the Educational Testing Service

"Life may have less mystery, but it will also have less disillusionment and disappointment. Hope will not be a lost source of strength, but it will be kept within reasonable bounds." These words, which appeared in the 1950 annual report of a new organization called the Educational Testing Service (ETS), heralded the emergence of a new kind of corporate power, the power to assign millions of people to their places in education and the economy and to change the way they think about their own potential.

Some of the nation's most powerful foundations, universities, and corporations created and supported the Educational Testing Service. It combined institutional influence with a bold vision of social planning, which encompassed, as Henry Chauncey, the company's founding president, put it in the 1950 *Annual Report,* "the whole national man-power, woman-power, and child-power." Unlike more conventional organizations, ETS was not in business to make a profit, sell products, teach students, or wield government power.

Instead, operating primarily through the medium of paper-and-pencil multiple-choice tests, ETS would convince people that it had measured their minds and would then use those measurements to shape their educational and career opportunities.

Thirty years later, the ETS vision of a society where ETS multiple-choice tests defined the reasonable bounds of hope had become a reality for millions of people.

The Educational Testing Service sells more tests than Ford and General Motors, combined, sell new cars in the United States. It has more than 5,000 test centers worldwide, each part of an international network with more outposts than the U.S. Department of Defense. It is a network that extends, in the words of an ETS annual report, "from Antarctica to Zaire."

ETS tests influence, among other things, the chance to enter half of U.S. colleges, 75 percent of U.S. graduate programs, 80 percent of business schools, and 100 percent of law schools. They also influence the opportunity to sell insurance in Illinois; fight fire or walk a police beat in Philadelphia; become an officer in the Liberian

By ALLAN NAIRN *and* ASSOCIATES

NEA'S POSITION ON TESTING

NEA strongly supports testing and rigorous assessment of student performance.

NEA rejects, however, standardized tests that emphasize competition against a "norm" rather than educational goals. Large-scale, mass-administered standardized testing programs have moved away from the major and appropriate objectives of testing: diagnosis of learning needs, prescription of instructional activities, and measurement of student progress in curriculum content.

We need to use our expertise, professional judgment, and influence with other educators and the public to end testing programs that abuse and harm students. Individually and collectively, teachers must challenge the testing industry and influence state departments of education and other groups to research, develop, and disseminate a broad range of alternatives to standardized tests for evaluating learning progress.

—**Willard McGuire,** *NEA president.* Mr. McGuire wrote at greater length on this subject in an introduction to "Standardized Testing: The Frustrating System That Traps Our Students," a kit on testing.

Developed by NEA Communications in cooperation with NEA Instruction and Professional Development, NEA Affiliate Services, and NEA Research, the kit has been distributed to state and local association presidents and to UniServ staff. It contains information on how to get parents and the community involved in the truth-in-testing issue, a checklist teachers can use to judge their own school's testing program, reprints of articles on testing, and an annotated bibliography on the subject.

One of several ads NEA offers to local education associations for use in local publications.

Yesterday, a bright child.

Today, "below average."

Meet Melanie. She's a first-grader who's just taken her first standardized test. Melanie is a bright and happy child; but she has just been branded "below average" by the people who make tests.

All through their lives, students are subjected to standardized IQ tests, Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT's), Graduate Record Examinations (GRE's), and many other tests. These tests don't measure what a student knows.

Yet people are classified by the tests as "above average" or "below average" and decisions about class placement, college admissions, and entering a profession are based on the results.

Parents need to know how children are being categorized. To find out more, write:

Name, address, and phone number of local association.

nea National Education Association
1201 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036

Merchant Marine; practice law in 42 states; or receive a scholarship from the State of Georgia, Union Carbide, or the Brotherhood of Steamfitters. Every year, ETS multiple-choice tests judge 7 to 9 million people who are trying to advance through thousands of schools and 50 different occupations.

In 1978, ETS President William W. Turnbull wrote in a confidential corporate strategy memo, "We grew to be a large omnipresent organization . . . a powerful, little-known organization that many people had to deal with involuntarily in order to gain (or be denied) access to educational opportunities."

Perhaps more than any other single U.S. organization—business or government—ETS is in a position to determine what individuals will be permitted to attempt to do. Though there is persuasive evidence that ETS tests fail to predict academic and occupational performance, they are a shaping, often capricious, force.

Even a brief review of the tests ETS offers can suggest the sweep of their influence:

• **Preschool and Elementary.** ETS advertises the Cooperative Preschool Inventory for children aged three to five as a test that can measure within 15 minutes a child's "achievement in areas regarded as necessary for success in school," such as perception, thinking, and verbal expression. With the *Sequential Tests of Educational Progress* (*STEP*), *School and College Ability Tests* (*SCAT*), and *CIRCUS* tests (for young children), in addition to the *Preschool Inventory*, the 1978 ETS *Annual Report* boasted, "ETS now has tests available—for the first time—that permit monitoring a student's progress in the major areas of instruction from preschool through the twelfth grade."

• **High School Admission, Graduation, and Equivalency.** At Andover, Groton, the Dhahran Aramco School, and more than 450 of the world's most expensive private schools, students are chosen on the basis of the *Secondary School Admission Test*. In 1977, the ETS Basic Skills Assessment program tested 70,000 high school seniors, in many cases to determine whether they would be permitted to graduate. More than half a million people who in 1978 attempted to advance themselves by earning a high school diploma-equivalent were screened by the ETS-authored Tests of General Educational Development.

• **College Admission, Financial Aid, and Placement.** Beginning in seventh grade with the *Junior Scholastic Aptitude Test*, continuing with the *Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test (PSAT)*, and concluding (for high school at least) with the *Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)*, students run a gamut of ETS tests to gain admission to, or financial aid for, college. Scholarships from organizations as diverse as Getty Oil Company and the State of New Jersey are granted according to scores on the *PSAT* as are, of course, the $12 million worth of National Merit and Achievement Scholarships that are awarded annually.

A 1976 College Board survey of member colleges found that 80 percent

considered test scores the "most important" variable in admission decisions. Students are also encouraged to use their *SAT* scores for self-selection; ETS publishes charts showing students how to calculate where their score would rank among other college applicants. The ETS College Scholarship Service's decisions provide the basis for college scholarship, loan, and work-study awards.

• **Graduate and Professional School Admission.** More than 75 percent of the 12,000 graduate programs listed in the *Graduate Programs and Admissions Manual 1979-1981* require the ETS *Graduate Record Examinations (GRE)*. Hundreds of fellowship-granting agencies also require the *GRE*'s. More than 80 percent of all business schools require the ETS *Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT)*. Every accredited law school in America requires the ETS *Law School Admission Test (LSAT)*. In 42 states, the ETS *Multistate Bar Exam* is required for admission to the practice of law.

The ETS tests used in admission decisions are known as "aptitude" tests. According to ETS, an aptitude test measures "the capacity or potentiality of an individual for a particular kind of behavior." ETS claims that its aptitude tests can predict success by measuring potential for certain important kinds of thinking: ETS bulletins inform students that the tests measure such qualities as "the ability to understand what [they] read"; "certain mental abilities related to academic performance in law school"; "analytic ability as well as . . . verbal and quantitative ability."

The ability to predict first-year academic grades in college, graduate, or professional school is the empirical basis of ETS's claim to measure aptitude; a test's "validity" is often judged by how well it predicts this kind of future performance. ETS claims about the accuracy of their tests' predictions are bold. ETS President Turnbull, in a 1974 speech, claimed, "The evidence about college entrance tests as predictors of academic success is no longer a subject of legitimate dispute. . . . Most educators are quite familiar with the fact that the scores work in more cases than not, popular belief to the contrary notwithstanding."

ETS statements to students about the predictive accuracy of its tests are full of the word *perfect* and analogies to physical measuring tools. Alongside a diagram of an *SAT* score scale, drawn to resemble a thermometer, the bulletin for candidates receiving College Board scores states that "the chances are 2 out of 3" that one's score will "fall within a limited band around . . . the score you would earn if a test could measure your ability with perfect accuracy." ETS literature repeats the theme that although its tests are not *perfect* measuring instruments, even physical measurements are known to have some error. "Although test scores are good predictors of performances in college," writes William Angoff of ETS in an article explaining the *SAT* to counselors and teachers, "they are not perfect predictors."

This, to say the least, is putting it mildly. A physical measuring device such as the thermometer, which ETS officials often use to compare the accuracy of their tests, is accurate more than 95 percent of the time. According to figures compiled from 827 ETS validity studies conducted between 1964 and 1974, on the average, the *SAT* is more accurate than chance only 11.9 percent of the time in predicting first-year grades. Statisticians call this average accuracy a test's "percentage of perfect prediction." To see how often chance would predict grade ranking as well as a test within a group, the test's percent of perfect prediction is subtracted from 100 percent. This means that for the *SAT*, 88 percent of the time college grades could be predicted just as well by a random process, such as a roll of the dice. According to figures ETS presented in 1977, the average accuracy of the other ETS aptitude tests is about the same:

Percentage of Predictions in Which Random Prediction with a Pair of Dice Is as Accurate as an ETS Test	
SAT (college)	88%
LSAT (law school)	87
GRE (graduate school)	89
GMAT (business school)	92

Because test scores are not the only factor in admission—they are generally used along with previous grades—the 12 percent accuracy figure for the *SAT* actually overstates its practical predictive contribution. The compilation of ETS validity studies found that high school grades alone are about

TEACHERS AND STANDARDIZED TESTS

Standardized tests are widely used, usually inappropriately, to make decisions about pupil progress and the quality of school programs. Generally they produce "small answers to small questions." Teachers have little influence on standardized tests although their results greatly influence classroom practice.

The Educational Testing Service is a major producer of tests. The report summarized in the accompanying article points to a number of problems regarding the influence of this giant on the lives of teachers and students.

In order to improve present standardized-testing practices, teachers should find the answers to these questions:

- What testing does your state's legislation or state department of education require? Do these requirements promote learning?
- Have teachers been involved in determining the content of testing programs and the selection of tests?
- Do the tests adequately reflect the instructional program and curriculum of your school?
- Are important learning outcomes ignored by externally developed standardized tests?
- Are any measures used to assess student strengths so programs can be planned on that basis?
- In what ways can you contribute your expertise to make decisions about testing student achievement or developing assessment methods?
- Do parents, policymakers, and other citizens understand the limitations of standardized tests?

When answers to questions such as these are unsatisfactory to teachers, they should speak out through their organized profession. Such efforts can produce evaluation practices that truly promote high quality teaching and learning.

—**Frances Quinto,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

TRUE? WHO KNOWS? FALSE? ONLY TIME WILL TELL...
10-17
PERHAPS... COULD BE... MAYBE..I DOUBT IT... DON'T COUNT ON IT...
MAYBE IN THE LONG RUN...IT ALL DEPENDS... WEATHER PERMITTING
SOME OF US, MA'AM SEE EVERYTHING IN SHADES OF GRAY
SCHULZ
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twice as good as the *SAT* in predicting college grades. And adding the *SAT* to high school grades only improved the accuracy of predictions by an average of 2.6 to 5 percent. This finding that the *SAT* has low predictive validity and makes little contribution to first-year grade prediction has been corroborated by an independent analysis of ETS validity studies by Douglas Porter and Warner Slack of the Harvard Medical School. Their findings will be published in a forthcoming issue of the prestigious *Harvard Educational Review*.

Marginal as they are, the predictions of first-year grades are the test's most accurate forecasts. Score correlations with grades in later years are lower still. Though the test purports to measure the aptitude to learn, Alexander Astin of the American Council on Education found that both low and high *SAT* scorers "showed similar gains in achievement during their undergraduate years." In a study of 36,581 students who entered 180 colleges in 1966, Dr. Astin found that the *SAT* had little ability to predict who will drop out of and who will persist in college: It provided an accuracy of only 3.2 percent for men and 2.9 percent for women. According to ETS figures, the *LSAT* is only 5 percent accurate in predicting who will graduate from law school. The *GRE* has a similar record in predicting who will obtain the Ph.D.

Various kinds of biographical questionnaires and personal-rating scales have been found to predict grades nearly as well as, or better than, test scores. In a series of studies, psychologist Gene Smith used student ratings of their classmates on such characteristics as work orientation and found that in several cases, a composite "strength of character" score was three times more successful in predicting post high school academic success than any combination of 13 "academic aptitude measures" such as the *SAT*. Professor Anne Anastasi of Fordham University (later a winner of the ETS Award for Distinguished Service to Measurement) and two associates developed a student biographical inventory and compared the correlations of both this measure and the *SAT* scores to success in college. "In each of the comparisons, the two parts of the *SAT*, taken separately, had lower correlations with the criterion than the biographical inventory."

Standardized tests' predictions of success outside of school are no better. One study of 10,000 people found that the number of significant correlations between test scores and occupational success "did not exceed what would be expected by chance." A 1979 report by ETS researcher Leonard Baird on student accomplishment beyond the classroom concluded flatly that, rather than test scores, "information about past accomplishments is the best predictor of future accomplishments."

Even if ETS admission tests could predict first-year grades, the long-term relevance of that prediction would be open to question: An analysis for the American College Testing Program of 46 studies conducted between 1902 and 1965 concluded, "College grades bear little or no relationship to any measures of adult accomplishment." As one ETS researcher wrote, "No one can be found who will seriously defend the freshman year grade-point average as an important gauge of anything very important in life's list of desirable values."

The fact that Black, Latino, and some other minority group students tend systematically to receive lower scores on ETS tests than White students is well known. Because of this, minority students in many cases must earn *higher* grades than Whites in order to have an equal chance of admission. ETS insists that the low scores of minorities do not reflect deficiencies in the test but deficiencies in the preparation and potential of the minority students themselves.

But because the tests only predict future success only slightly better than pure chance, the result of the clustering of minorities on the lowest score brackets is that a lower percentage of qualified minorities than of qualified Whites are admitted and given a chance actually to perform.

The ETS claim that its tests are not biased against minorities is based on a definition that assumes a test is not biased if it predicts the first-year grades of minorities about as accurately as it predicts the first-year grades of Whites. (This definition was developed by ETS researcher T. Anne Cleary.) This definition ignores the fact that since the validity of grade prediction is low for *both* Whites and minorities, and minorities tend to receive lower scores, they can be excluded by a test score that has little connection to their actual ability to succeed.

In 1971, Professors R. L. Thorndike and R. B. Darlington published separate papers that proposed new definitions of test bias. Thorndike's definition (as paraphrased by an ETS researcher) was that a test of low validity "is unfair to the lower scoring group of applicants, in the sense that the proportion of that group that qualifies on the test will turn out to be smaller than

the proportion who would be qualified on the job [or in school]." This struck home for ETS officials. In an internal memo dated September 24, 1971, ETS vice-president for statistical analysis Richard S. Levine wrote that the new definitions undermined the ETS claims: "The major conclusion is that the customary statistical criterion, sometimes attributed to Ann [sic] Cleary, is inadequate. The argument that bias does not exist if regression lines coincide for two groups *appears to be untenable.*" (Emphasis added.) Subsequent research by several scholars has indicated that according to Thorndike's definition, the use of aptitude tests in many actual admission practices does discriminate against minority students. ETS, despite the verdict of its vice-president, has continued to this day to use the Cleary definition to assert that its tests are free of bias.

The implications of this pattern of bias are severe. Roy D. Goldman and Melvin H. Widawski of the University of California at Riverside, who studied four schools in the University of California System, for example, found that the addition of the *SAT* to high school grades did little to increase the admission of students who actually succeeded in school, but resulted in the admission of "far fewer Black and Chicano students."

No studies have even attempted, however, to estimate how many college graduates, lawyers, doctors, and professional people have been lost to the Black, Latino, and other ethnic communities as a whole by the reliance on ETS aptitude tests to serve, in the words of an ETS researcher, "as the gatekeepers for much of society's rewards."

Many individuals who run powerful institutions, and many academics who write about them, contend that American society, and higher education in particular, used to be something of an aristocracy where wealth and privilege ruled and the future of individuals was shaped largely by their economic background. This system, they argue, has been replaced by selection according to merit. Economic class is said to have given way to, in Henry Chauncey's words, "the democracy of multiple-choice tests."

ETS President Turnbull sums up this view:

> The ability to perform well on tasks sampled by examinations, along with other common indices of accomplishments, has come largely to replace considerations of family or wealth or religion or ethnicity as a basis for acceptance into selective colleges and professional schools.

The implication by test professionals that standardized aptitude testing replaced ranking based on class with ranking based on merit is misleading. A ranking of people by *SAT* scores remains by and large a ranking of people by family income. The pattern is consistent over time, geographic region, and fine gradations of income. It is not simply a matter of penthouse versus tenement. The more money a person's family makes, the higher that person tends to score. People from homes with incomes of $21,000 tend to score higher than people from homes with incomes of $18,000; people from white-collar homes tend to score higher than people from blue-collar homes.

Relationship Between *SAT* Average and Parental Income (1973-74)

SAT Average	*Parent's Mean Income**
750-800	$24,124
700-749	21,980
650-699	21,292
600-649	20,330
550-599	19,481
500-549	18,824
450-499	18,122
400-449	17,387
350-399	16,182
300-349	14,355
250-299	11,428
200-249	8,639

SOURCE: *College Bound Seniors*, 1973-74, Table 21, p. 27.

The ranking by class prevails not just when large groups are averaged together; it also prevails among applicants from individual institutions. Less

*In the United States, the chances of being at a given income level are directly related to ethnic background. According to College Board figures, the parents of Black students taking the 1978-79 *SAT* had a mean income ($13,700) less than half that of the parents of White candidates (27,300). Puerto Rican ($14,500), Mexican-American ($16,500), and other minority students also came from families with significantly smaller mean incomes.

THE RIGHT TRACK

The school sent home the first danger signals when the child was in third grade: He had not scored well on standardized tests and might be steered down a remedial track.

His mother refused to believe what she heard.

"I thought something was haywire. This was a kid who had designed whole games and could work three-dimensional puzzles as a preschooler," she recalled.

"I took him to a specialist in educational psychology, who said he was a very, very bright, very creative kid, and then I went back to the school and said, 'OK, what's going on?' "

The public school in Los Angeles' Eagle Rock section backed off, and Steven Hufstedler was kept on the fast track. Today, at age 26, he is a third-year medical student at the University of California at Irvine.

His mother, Shirley Mount Hufstedler, stayed on the fast track, too.

Recently, after 18 years as a local, state, and federal judge, she became the nation's first secretary of education.

This small, forceful woman, daughter of a schoolteacher and a building contractor, brought from the bench a deep concern about how people and institutions treat children.

She told Senators at her confirmation hearing that one of her top priorities in the new $14 billion Department of Education would be to weigh every federal policy for its impact on individual children.

"We have not been a child-caring society, really. We pay a lot of lip service to being child-caring, but to my mind, we have not conspicuously demonstrated a commitment to children," the 54-year-old cabinet officer said.

After her son's experience, one of the things she discovered "going on" was a lot of tracking—putting youngsters into slots by their early test scores.

"Kids ended up with labels that were in many respects almost as destructive as tattooing numbers on prisoners," said Mrs. Hufstedler, who was active both in local school affairs and on state education committees. "Kids become prisoners of labels, and people no

detailed data on the scores and incomes of 1977-78 test takers indicate that the ranking still holds firm.

The assertions that the ETS test system ranks people by individual merit does not stand up to the hard facts of student performance. In his massive study of 36,581 students, Dr. Astin found that, unlike the *SAT*, first-year grades did *not* correlate with parental income. A 1969 ETS study of 15,535 college-bound students found that actual accomplishments outside the classroom did not correlate with income either: "Although educational ambitions were significantly related to accomplishments in several areas, family income was not. *That is, students from families with different incomes did not significantly differ in the number or level of accomplishments they reported.*" (Emphasis added.)

"This lack of a relationship between accomplishments and family background," wrote ETS researcher Leonard L. Baird in a 1979 summary of research in the field, "is supported by the National Merit studies which reported no significant correlation between these two types of variables in their samples. These results suggest that the accomplishment measures do not discriminate against disadvantaged students, although disadvantaged students do score lower on academic ability tests [i.e., ETS aptitude tests]."

Long since forgotten in the current climate of acceptance of ETS aptitude tests as measures of personal ability were the observations of the Commission on Financing Higher Education, which included the presidents of Brown, Stanford, Johns Hopkins, and two future ETS trustees, Harvard Provost Paul H. Buck and Commission Director John D. Millett. In 1952, the Commission wrote, *"These tests systematically penalize working-class youth,* because the problems of the tests are more familiar to middle-class than to working-class experience." (Emphasis added.)

By continuing to promote a class-determined test, ETS reduces the aspirations and opportunities of millions of working-class and poor people—without telling them why. ETS literature explains their condition by their low rank in "aptitude"; college catalogs explain it in terms of merit. But ETS's own statistics are the most telling; they document the ranking by *SAT* scores, in effect, as a ranking by social class—class in the guise of merit.

The power of ETS has been opened up to scrutiny and challenge by the passage, in 1979, of New York's truth-in-testing law, which requires public disclosure of internal test company studies of the tests' validity and data relating to possible cultural and class bias. It also requires the companies to inform test takers what their scores mean and how they will be presented to institutions, and to allow test takers, after scores have been sent out, to receive a copy of the test questions and the correct answers. New York State Senator Kenneth P. LaValle, who was the bill's prime sponsor, believes that by focusing new attention on testing, the bill will prompt schools to "look at the whole student rather than place such an emphasis on the test."

The interest in truth-in-testing is not limited to New York. The U.S. House of Representatives and at least 15 states are considering truth-in-testing legislation, and some testing programs, such as the *LSAT*, have extended their compliance with the New York law nationwide.

The rise of the truth-in-testing movement sets the stage for the emergence of a national reconsideration of the power to define potential, which has been steadily and quietly accumulated by psychometricians and their institutional leader, ETS. ETS is well aware of these conditions and is preparing a revealing response. A 1978 internal memo from President Turnbull enumerated criticisms of ETS and testing and discussed strategy on "how to invalidate, obviate, counter, [and] rebut them." ETS was about to enter an epoch of public questioning, Turnbull wrote, when reasoned discussion would not be adequate to sustain the corporate defense.

ETS has traditionally taken a rather dignified—even lofty—and apolitical approach to matters of public controversy. I believe we need to retain our dignity but realize that the problems lie much more in the realms of communications and politics

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longer think about them to find out what they really can do."

She calls it "a personal bias: I have never had much use for true-false tests, nor for multiple-choice tests. I recognize they are easy ways mechanically to grade large numbers of papers. In many respects, they test the ability of people to take true-false tests. But for the imaginative person, these tests are very difficult to take, unless one is simply asking for rote information.

"If you really want to know whether the person knows the date of the Battle of Hastings, you can say, '1066—true or false?' and people can pass or fail."

She said she did not mean to criticize the schools "nor to say tests don't have their use. They do. But they also have been seriously misused in a number of circumstances. They do not test all kinds of subjective matters—judgment, intuition, creativity, imagination."

Mrs. Hufstedler does not believe that declining scores on the *SAT* and the National Assessment of Educational Progress prove the quality of America's schools is eroding.

"I view statistics with somewhat less awe than a lot of people do," said the former judge, who noted that crime can appear to be waxing or waning, depending on how crime indexes are constructed.

It may be that it is time for us to think about developing educational indicators, she said, like the business indicators that provide signals on whether the economy is up or down.

Today's children may not be good spellers, she said, but that is not emphasized in a society where "people who can be clever with words orally get more points than someone who is a meticulous writer. While I happen to be ensorcelled with the written word, I'm not prepared to say that must be the national value norm," she said, explaining for a reporter that *ensorcelled* means enchanted.

Everyone needs basic reading skills, she added, but a painter may "write creatively by using a brush, and it doesn't make any difference necessarily whether that person could win a spelling bee."

—Christopher Connell, *Associated Press.*

This article was released by the Associated Press on January 17, 1980.

than in logic and that the solutions are going to be found (or the battles lost) in hot arenas rather than in cool reason.

ETS has pursued its "hot arenas" strategy by such tactics as making sensational and unsupportable threats about the impact of truth-in-testing (such as the claim that the New York bill would "destroy" equating—a position abandoned by ETS technicians as soon as the bill was passed) and suggesting that advocates of testing reform are in fact pursuing a sinister "hidden agenda." On a more subtle level, ETS strategists are determined to make it seem that defense of the principles of standards, excellence, and the intelligent use of information is necessarily equivalent to defense of the ETS test system

But ETS should not be given an intellectual monopoly to complement its economic one. It should not be allowed to define the choices in terms of ETS or nothing. Rather the choices should involve the question of which elements of the current test system or alternative systems should be maintained and which should be discarded. For instance, while the national network of testing centers provides a convenient and useful function, there is no reason why the offerings in those centers must be limited to ETS multiple-choice tests.

Growing consumer interest in the power of ETS is likely to reach a critical stage before long. We would like to offer some important considerations for that evolving national debate:

1. What are the effects of restricting the information system (that is, the test center network and information-processing facilities now controlled by ETS) to multiple-choice tests developed and chosen by a single organization? Limiting the information-gathering instruments to multiple-choice tests unfairly restricts the means by which individuals can demonstrate their skills and potential. Must reflections of student talent pass through ETS? Cannot essays (or scientific problem-solving exercises), for example, be sent to individual schools who could decide for themselves what they are looking for in the applicant—be it creativity, facility with the language, or analytic ability? As many educators have pointed out, reliance on multiple-choice tests can actually work against the development of these skills and encourage instead the mastery of the peculiar requirements of multiple-choice test taking.

2. What are academic and other institutions trying to accomplish with their admission policies? Precisely what goals and whose interests do those policies actually serve? Reliance on ETS tests raises basic questions about an institution's purposes, and students, parents, workers, and taxpayers should be asking them directly through meetings and discussions with admission officials. Among the key questions to be investigated from campus to campus:

- How important are the tests in the admissions process? What are the actual formulas used? How does the school account—if at all—for the tests' tendency to distribute scores along class and ethnic lines?
- What kinds of students are excluded through reliance on the tests?
- What does the institution claim to gain from requiring the test? How does test performance measure up against the institution's chosen criterion (such as predicting first-year grades), and how important is the criterion in the first place?

3. Should applicants have to bear the costs of the tests? One reason why colleges and universities have come to rely so heavily on the tests is that the tests do not cost them anything. Fees, on the other hand, can be a barrier for low-income students and provide a political weapon to the test industry, which can threaten fee increases when asked to change its procedures (as ETS and the College Board have done in response to truth-in-testing).

4. Is the ETS ranking really a meritocratic ranking? What is the purpose of claiming that it is? What is the purpose of demanding that alternative admission standards rank candidates in a similar fashion? The theory that the use of multiple-choice national admission tests produces a ranking by merit is not sustained by the evidence. Is it rational to rank applicants and thereby affect their long-term prospects with tests that provide only an 8 to 15 percent improvement over blind chance in the prediction of a short-term criterion such as first-year grades? The evidence suggests that the choice of the standard of merit—such as the tests—may depend on which class one is interested in serving. Selection by previous grades instead of scores, for example, would increase the proportion of working-class students admitted. Selection on the basis of previous accomplishments, ETS's own research has indicated, would virtually eliminate the class bias now inherent in selection by ETS aptitude tests.

5. Can significant reform be implemented given ETS's current position? ETS has proven remarkably resistant to change, even when proposed by test-system insiders. Among the proposals that ETS officials and trustees have offered and ETS has rejected in the last few years: implementation of a truth-in-testing style disclosure system; turning ownership of test scores, and thereby control over their use, over to test takers; phasing out the *SAT* in favor of an assortment of smaller tests in particular subject and skill areas; and abandoning the claim to measure such intangible qualities as "aptitude."

The ETS test system has operated for years as a large, powerful, and entrenched mechanism that served the interests of its managers; offered convenience, prestige, and political justification to its clients; and, as long as consumers were not organized, made no powerful enemies. ETS has an overwhelming economic and political interest in maintaining the current test system. But despite tremendous influence in the educational community, ETS recognizes that the matter of its future has moved into arenas outside of its domination.

President Turnbull wrote in his 1978 strategy memo, ". . . although many of the criticisms grow out of ignorance and some are wrong, others have substance. Moreover, the furor is widespread and shows no signs of going away. . . . The situation," President Turnbull concluded, "is most unlikely to blow over." □

This article was excerpted and adapted from *The Reign of ETS: The Corporation That Makes Up Minds* by Allan Nairn and associates (The Ralph Nader Report on the Educational Testing Service). The full 550-page report may be obtained for $30 from Learning Research Project, P.O. Box 19312, Washington, DC 20036.

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Meet Rudy Flores

"Whatever it is, I'll do it if it'll help that student understand what I'm trying to say," says Rudy Flores with a smile. While he speaks, his fingers move steadily, showing how his statement looks in signed English.

Rudy Flores teaches deaf children at Birney Elementary School in Tacoma, Washington, which draws deaf pupils from a wide area and teaches them alongside the hearing.

What is it like to teach the deaf? Today's Education *writer Jane Power recently asked Rudy Flores that and other questions about his work.*

You are hearing, and your students are deaf. How do you communicate with one another?

We use total communication, which is sign language and speech at the same time.

Total communication means that I'll use whatever method I have to use to get a student to understand. I'll use finger spelling, letter by letter. I'll use sign language, whole words at a time. I'll use mime. I'll draw a picture on the board. If I have to stand on my head and spit BB's, I'll do it if it'll help a student understand what I'm trying to say.

When your students sign, do they use Ameslan [American Sign Language, which uses English words but has its own syntax]?

Not all the time. When we're working on language, we use signed English instead. We sign it as you would say it in regular English, using the right sign to indicate the right tense.

When we're doing reading, the kids sign the words exactly as they're written. When we're doing language, they're going to sign the sentences properly, and they're going to write them properly. I expect it.

Where does Ameslan fit in?

Ameslan is the easy way to say things. Instead of signing *I don't know,* they shrug their shoulders. If we hearing people can do that and find it acceptable, why can't we allow deaf people the same liberty?

If deaf kids are in a social situation with other deaf kids, they're going to pick up Ameslan. They're going to talk the easiest way they know how, they're going to have noun-verb disagreement, the sentence structure is going to be all turned around. You can no more stop them from doing that than you can tape an oral kid's mouth shut.

When deaf kids meet with older deaf people, too, Ameslan is what they're going to use. They're going to value that experience of having contact with an older deaf person. So I don't discourage the Ameslan at all. I think it's part of deaf kids' total language learning.

Do you try to get all the deaf students to talk?

Talking is always a goal and an important one, but we have to keep in mind that it may not be realized.

At the end of last year, we took our kids to McDonald's. We lined them up outside, gave them each a dollar from some money left over in a fund, and said, "OK, go."

Some of the kids were shocked, their eyes got big, they got scared: "What am I going to do?"

"Go in and buy something to eat."

Sooner or later, they have to realize that they are going to be in situations when the teacher is not going to be there, their mother is not going to be with them.

And they all got to eat?

They all got to eat. The kids who couldn't speak very clearly signed their orders to the kids who could talk.

We didn't say anything; we just sat back and let them go. "He wants a hamburger, and he wants a Coke."

We weren't trying to put them on the spot, but just to see what their reaction would be and how they'd handle it. They did pretty well—we were proud of them.

Do they talk at all in class discussion?

Yes, they all talk, and I understand the kids in my classroom when they speak even when I'm not watching their hands. Even with the ones who don't have great speech, I understand what they're saying because I have contact with them every day.

When they talk, do they sign at the same time?

Yes.

So that the other kids can understand them by looking at them?

A whole lot of repetition is inherent in the learning process.

Yes. They learn how to sign almost as fast as we can talk. It takes time to learn it, but it's not that hard.

Does everyone at the school know sign language?

All the teachers have a working knowledge of it; all the students are learning sign language. Starting in kindergarten, we have a half hour a day for every class.

We offer free sign language classes to parents and anyone who's interested. Two of our teachers give classes on Wednesday nights, and everyone comes in. Our kitchen helper was taking it; our school secretary was taking it; we had parents there.

Do you ever find yourself signing a little bit when you're just having a conversation?

Not in Ameslan or signed English, but I finger spell all the time. I'll be watching television and finger spelling the news, maybe. It's fun, and it's good to practice finger spelling, because a lot of deaf people don't know some of the word signs we use. If you finger spell, letter by letter, everybody is going to understand what you're saying.

Which classes do deaf and hearing students take together at Birney?

We combine the deaf and hearing students all the way through school for social activities, art, PE. Last year my fourth grade class had two and a half hours a week, on Thursdays, of art, music, and PE with the regular fourth grade class.

One year our deaf sixth grade classes were included in a math program for an hour a day with the regular sixth grade class. They did quite well. This year our fourth grade class is integrated into one district-wide math program.

Math is an area that deaf students usually don't have a whole lot of problems with. Usually deaf kids seem real rigid about what they learn, and in math, everything is pretty cut and dried. There's not a lot of language involved, as long as you understand the concepts.

English is different. So many things are changeable in the English language. If you put in a question mark or an apostrophe, it changes the whole meaning. It's hard for them to understand that. I've had just one class that could be involved in a reading program with hearing students, because their language was that good, their ability to write was that good.

How did you teach the music lessons?

Some people think that deaf people can't hear a thing. Well, that's not so, but depending upon their hearing range, they're going to be hearing different things, low-frequency, high-frequency, or frequencies in between. So it's hard.

I had a deaf aide, and we worked on the signs for the words of the song ahead of time. Then she read my lips as I played my guitar and sang, and she signed the words.

We taught all the kids—the hearing ones, too—the signs for each song. We taught the deaf kids the signs, and we said, Now, you be the teacher and

show this kid the right signs, and you'll both sing together.

The value of it was, one, the deaf child was helping someone learn something, and two, a hearing kid came in contact with a deaf kid and learned that everybody is the same. Then they all sang as a group. We had a lot of fun with that.

How can deaf kids sing?

They use their voices, they try to sing the words, but they're off-key because they can't hear or read music. If you play a chord, though, all the kids can put their hands on the wood and feel it, and everyone is signing the song together.

You know, it's uncanny about the vibrations. Some of the deaf are fantastic dancers. They turn the music up all the way, and they can feel the vibrations coming through the air, in the floor. They can feel the beat, and it is not that hard to dance to it.

Rhythm is something you don't have to be deaf to not have or to have. A lot of people that hear can't dance for anything. It's the same for deaf people. Some can, some can't.

How do the deaf and the hearing kids get along together?

When I first arrived at Birney, there were so many problems. The kids were continually fighting, harassing, teasing. The little deaf kids would get together and pick on the hearing kids, and the hearing kids would get together and push the deaf kids.

The fights start because the kids don't know how to talk to each other. They don't know how to communicate, so they just express their feelings by hitting out.

One of the things that we've been working on with our deaf kids is teaching them the language of feeling, so they can let people know they don't like something or how it makes them feel.

We're also getting the kids together in school activities, giving them an opportunity to realize, Hey, this guy is all right, or She can run just as fast as I can, or He's really cute. All the things that are important to fourth and fifth and sixth graders.

It's amazing, the change that's taken place. There are almost no problems of behavior or of compatibility between the hearing kids and the deaf kids now.

How big are your classes, or the classes of deaf students in general?

They are all either six or seven. My class last year was a class of six. By state law, the maximum is seven.

And you have them for the full day?

They come in at 9, and they're gone at 2:30. I'd like to have them from 8 to 4.

I'd love to have year-round school, because when the kids are home for even two months, I have to start all over again with them when they return to school, doggone it. I just have to start plugging away and refresh, refresh, review, review.

So that frustrates me, I don't like it. I don't feel that I need two or three months' vacation. After two weeks, I'm ready to go back.

Really?

Really, I am.

We've been hearing so much about burned-out teachers lately.

Well, a whole lot of whatever you're doing as a teacher is a matter of attitude—as long as you're not in physical danger. If you tell yourself, Doggone it, it's just November 29, and I can't wait till Christmas break, then when Christmas break comes you're ready for it. You've talked yourself into being just as tired, just as burned out as you can be.

So I think teachers do it to themselves. Maybe that's wrong. I don't know.

Does deafness create other problems for students besides just not being able to hear?

A lot of other problems. They have trouble developing the concept of their relation to their surroundings. As I understand it, little children use their hearing to do that. They only see what they're looking at, but they hear from all around. That is how they place themselves.

Then, the deaf are so alone. It's hard to imagine the isolation of a deaf person. You have little or no speech, and you hear almost nothing. If you and the people around you don't know sign language, your ability to communicate is so limited. You go down the street, and you hear nothing. Everything is a void.

It must be hard to feel at home in a silent world.

The best-adjusted deaf kids that I've come in contact with are those that come from deaf families, because from the outset, the parents know how to communicate with a deaf person. Think of a little kid who at dinnertime, at play time, at bedtime, has no one to talk to. There is no verbal communication—just maybe a hug, maybe a kiss, maybe the kid throws a tantrum and gets a spanking. The parents have to learn how to communicate.

When you see kids who, because they're deaf, have emotional problems, you have to realize that their reality is much different from your own. That's what I think we have to deal with as teachers.

What are some differences you've found between teaching deaf kids and teaching hearing kids?

The deaf miss a lot socially, conceptually. You can never assume that they know anything.

Think about the way a student learns. A whole lot of repetition is inherent in the learning process, but most of it is audio repetition.

In teaching deaf kids, I make sure that there is a continual visual and tactile repetition. I cannot assume, Well, I've given this information today, and now I'm going to push on. I've got to give it to them again and again.

And I've got to pretest, posttest, retention-test—then, by golly, I've got to find out, Did you get it? If you didn't, let's go back.

When I'm working with deaf students, I have to preteach vocabulary relating to a unit. If it's a math unit, the kids have to understand conceptually what a fraction is, what the numerator is, and also what the denominator is.

Whatever unit we're working on in reading, we learn the vocabulary words in it first. We have a pretest on Wednesday, we have a posttest on Friday, and we have a retention test down the line. So when the kids see a word, they're familiar with it.

Throughout the lesson they can interrupt to ask questions. If they have a question, I stop everything. I answer it.

Do you think that deaf students—or many of them—need so much individual attention that they really can't be in a class full of hearing kids all day?

That would depend totally on the kid. You can't say, All deaf kids can do this. I know a very, very successful deaf person who is now working in San Francisco, doing a children's program for the deaf.

He has good speech, he has fantastic vocabulary, he's very bright. He went to Birney when they just used to take the deaf kids and throw them in a regular hearing class.

I asked him, "How did you feel when you were going through Birney? What did you learn?"

And this was his answer:

I had great lipreading ability, and I got about 20 percent of everything that went on in class.

Everything depends on where they seat you. If they seat you in the front row, you're going to miss almost everything that every kid says, because you can't see their lips move.

If the teacher is turned sideways to you and his shoulder is in the way of his mouth, you don't get anything of what he says. If he turns around and is saying something as he writes on the board, you miss everything he says.

So you get about 20 percent if you're lucky, if you're watching everything that's going on, and if you happen to be sitting in a good spot.

Take a hard-of-hearing student who's got good speech, who's smart, who has good lipreading skills and a good self-image. Stick that kid in a classroom and let him or her go. That one probably will succeed.

But if a student's got a poor self-image, got poor speech, got lousy hearing, and the classroom teacher doesn't give him a lot of individual attention, that one probably will fail.

How did you become interested in teaching the deaf?

When I was in the military, down at Fort Sill, Oklahoma, the wife of one of the people I worked with was in teacher education at Jane Brooks School for the Deaf in Chickasha. That's an oral residential school for the deaf, with a teacher training program. I'd visit that couple, and I met deaf kids there.

After I finished my military, I went back to school, then my wife and I went to Europe for a year. When we came back, we ended up in her hometown, Maysville, Kentucky.

I did social work for a year and loved it, but I couldn't live on it. We were planning to have children, and the pay was terrible. I had to do something to make just a little bit more money, in case my wife wanted to quit work.

By that time I was interested in deaf education, so I went to graduate school. I taught a hearing class in Seattle one year, and I've been in Tacoma ever since.

Your family is Mexican. What was your experience with Spanish and English? Did it help you understand the problems of the deaf in any way?

My father always encouraged us to use English at home. Once in a while we used Spanish.

But I was really lucky. Until I was eight or nine, every summer we'd head for Grandma's house. And my grandmother would not speak English. If you wanted to eat, you'd better learn how to say it in Spanish.

It really helped me, because I learned how to communicate in Spanish with her. I wasn't afraid to use the language my family had used forever.

So the experience you've had with language has shown you—

People's experience with language is important. If they speak a language that isn't really very useful for talking with educators, it shouldn't just be destroyed. That is their reality—that's where their roots are, and that's how they communicate with their peers.

If I live in a barrio and I use English in the classroom, I should use it the correct way when I'm in the classroom. But when I get back home and my grandmother's there, I'm not going to use English with her. So why destroy my language? And I think that it is important for deaf students to know: Sign language is my own language.

Is there anything that teachers ought to be sure to remember when they get a deaf student in class?

We've had a few teachers that heard they were going to get some deaf students, part time, and panic set in: I can't do this, I don't know anything about them, I don't know how to teach them.

Well, for a deaf child, the most important thing is for the teacher to try to be accepting. Don't treat deaf children as special because they're deaf. Treat them like everyone else. If you pick them out as special, you're going to make some of the others antagonistic toward them.

A deaf student is going to present special problems. I would hope that there will always be some kind of interpreter in class so that the child can understand what's going on. I would hope that there will be some way to review, at the end of a given session, what went on in that classroom and to make sure that the deaf student understands the work.

This year, a neat thing happened in the sixth grade math class that has both deaf and hearing students: The teacher made the effort to use sign language.

I'd go by his room and see him up in front of the class, signing to tell the kids what to do in math. An interpreter didn't have to do it while the teacher just stood there because he didn't know sign language. The teacher was doing it, and that's neat.

That's what I think we look for—a shared responsibility and cooperation. You can't legislate or enforce that. There has to be a certain feeling within a group of people and within a building that supports that.

I think a lot of times we've legislated a lot of things we don't really think through, and that's a problem. You can legislate all you want, but if people don't want something, they're going to resist it.

How can people decide where to place a deaf child?

For a lot of deaf students the appropriate least restricted environment is the self-contained special education classroom. So in reviewing each case, ask yourself, Is that what's good for this kid?

In reviewing each case, ask yourself, Is that what's good for this kid?

At Birney School, we have an occupational therapist, a physical therapist, a Ph.D. psychologist, a social worker, the principal, the teacher, and the parents who all work together to do what's best for a kid. We hash it out.

We're really lucky. We come to pretty good decisions about kids. Not all the time, but most of the time.

What are the prospects for a deaf student who finishes Birney and then finishes high school?

A lot of times, once our deaf students get out of high school—unless they happen to be exceptional students—they're left by the wayside. We don't have data about what happens to them. How many deaf youngsters are failing? What did we do wrong? Is it society, is it the school program, is it the teaching?

Sure, we have a certain number of kids that go to Gallaudet College for the Deaf in Washington, DC, or to the National Technical Institute for the Deaf in Rochester, New York. We have some who go to Seattle Central Community College for the excellent program that they have there. But that's a minority. Many crop up two or three years later with a bunch of kids and no jobs. And that's a crime.

But some of your own students are going to do pretty well after they leave school?

I've had whole classes of bright kids—that was a pleasure. And for example, I had one student who really had a knack for mathematics—a little Black girl with a bad temper, but just as sweet as she could be.

I hit math hard, because if a kid can't speak, that's a big strike against him. But if a kid with that deficiency has a math background, a lot of things are going to be open to him that don't involve talking.

So I'm really big on math. This girl really grasped it, and she's got a pretty good language base. In junior high, she was the only deaf kid in the school who was taking algebra class with the hearing kids. I was tickled to death, because she's going to fly. She's really got it.

Are there any special materials that teachers can use with deaf students?

They can order captioned films. The state library here has a whole series—films on health, history, all the old Disney films that are really neat—*Snow White, Pinocchio, Big Red*. The largest library of captioned 16mm films for the deaf is in the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in Washington, DC.

Gallaudet College has the largest video collection and publishes a really nice signed English series which includes a dictionary that teachers can order for young students. The series has books like *The Three Little Pigs*, all the children's classics, written in sign language underneath the regular type.

Louie Fant puts out a good series of books on synonyms, and there are good books on idioms for the deaf. Those are really, really important.

Teachers who have never taught kids that have labeled handicaps may wonder what it might be like. What makes it better or harder or worse or more rewarding than teaching so-called normal children?

As far as the kids go, kids are kids. The responsibility of the teacher doesn't change. You're there to do a job, to teach kids the best way they can learn, whether it's through sign language or through speech. You figure out what the kid's problems are, if they're emotional, psychological, or physical. And you work around them or else try to figure out a way to make them positive and work for the kid, and you go.

You have to understand, of course, who you're working with. You have to understand the problems of the deaf and what to do. So maybe the training might be a little different. But it's all the same thing, you're teaching.

It doesn't change, it's teaching, and you get excited about it the same way. □

NEA Resolution B79-26
Communication Between the Hearing and the Hearing Impaired

The National Education Association believes that the lack of communications between the hearing and the hearing impaired has seriously detracted from the potential of a broadly distributed group to contribute fully to our total society—a mutual loss to all citizens.

The Association recommends that instruction be given to hearing students that will help them to understand the unique needs of all hearing impaired students, and will help hearing students communicate with hearing impaired students.

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Student's Guide—Animals in Biology. Revised. Booklet designed for high school students about the proper care and treatment of laboratory animals. 1979. 8 pp. Five copies free (each additional copy, 25¢). Natl. Society for Medical Research, 1029 Vermont Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20005.

Business Education

RPM Unlimited: A Business Machines Practice Set. Second edition. Dorothy Albertson. Designed to help students develop skills in the use of business machines and to familiarize them with the day-to-day activities of the business world. Includes teacher's manual and tests with key. 1980. 224 pp. $5.52. Gregg Div./McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

Careers

Coming Alive from Nine to Five: The Career Search Handbook. Betty Neville Michelozzi. Offers practical information on pinpointing career interests and aptitudes, setting long- and short-term goals, and deciding on beginning and changing careers. Includes self-evaluation exercises, tips for writing effective résumés and developing good interviewing skills, and step-by-step procedures for successful and rewarding career planning and job hunting. 1980. 186 pp. $5.95. Mayfield Pub. Co., 285 Hamilton Ave., Palo Alto, CA 94301.

Drugs

Know About Drugs. Second edition. Margaret O. Hyde and Bruce G. Hyde. Presents latest scientific findings on drugs and their effects on young people. Discusses soft intoxicants, such as cigarettes and glue, and hard narcotics, such as angel dust, heroin, and cocaine. Examines the facts behind each threat to the natural maturation of children and adolescents. Fourth grade reading level. 1979. 63 pp. $7.95. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

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Language Arts

The following publications are available from the Natl. Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

Attitudes, Language, and Change. Anne Ruggles Gere and Eugene Smith. Examines how teachers can improve students' spoken language. Discusses how to make use of research and how to cope with community pressures to use traditional grammar. Includes a bibliography that features works on dialect differences, linguistics for laypersons, spelling principles and variety, teaching materials about dialects, and works on attitudes about usage. 1979. 108 pp. $4.25 (price for NCTE members); $4.75 (price for nonmembers).

Classroom Practices in Teaching English, 1979-1980: How To Handle the Paper Load. Edited by Gene Stanford. Contains ideas from 27 writing teachers who teach at all levels of education in the United States and Canada. Explores the advantages of keeping a journal for developing writing fluency and points out ways to make journal assignments double as preparation for essays written for, and graded by, the teacher. Tells of effective approaches with classes ranging from remedial ones for junior high inner-city youngsters to those for college freshmen. 1979. 135 pp. $4.50 (price for NCTE members); $5 (price for nonmembers).

The following publications are available from Pitman Learning, Inc., 6 Davis Dr., Belmont, CA 94002.

Birdseye Mastery Masters. Beverly Cory. Four books: *Grammar and Usage, Phonics and Spelling, Word Meaning,* and *Word Structure.* Twenty-two spirit duplicating masters in each. 1980. 22 pp. $4.50 each.

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(continued on page 73)

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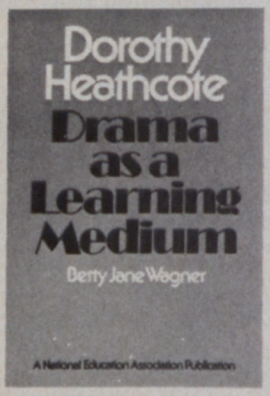

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the dictionary. Recommended for grades four through eight. 1980. 72 pp. $3.50.

Composition and Its Teaching. Edited by Richard C. Gebhardt. Contains 21 articles published in *College Composition and Communication* and selected as outstanding by Ohio college, high school, and junior high school teachers. 1979. 136 pp. $4.95. Ohio Council of Teachers of English Language Arts, *English Language Arts Bulletin,* Findlay College, Findlay, OH 45840.

The following guides, by Roslyn Snow, are available from Dept. EJJ, 3400 Meadow Brook, Costa Mesa, CA 92626. Designed for students in grade school through college who have problems with spelling and punctuation. Give instant references, rules, and examples for most spelling and punctuation problems. 1980. $1.95 each; $3.50 a set (quantity discounts available).

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Mathematical Carnival. Martin Gardner. Includes mathematical games, puzzles, and tantalizers originally published in *Scientific American.* 1980. 288 pp. $2.95.

Meet the Meters. Glenn Leslie and Marvin I. Gold. Uses cartoon characters to explain the origin of the metric system and the conversion scales. Includes special section on metric cooking. Color illustrations. 1980. 80 pp. $2.95.

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Ethical Issues in Mental Retardation. David F. Allen and Victoria S. Allen. Foreword by Eunice Kennedy Shriver. Designed to create an informed awareness in dealing with the mentally retarded. Examines issues so that the reader may seek further information and act on his or her own convictions. 1979. 172 pp. $5.95. Abingdon, 201 8th Ave., S., Nashville, TN 37202.

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(continued on page 75)

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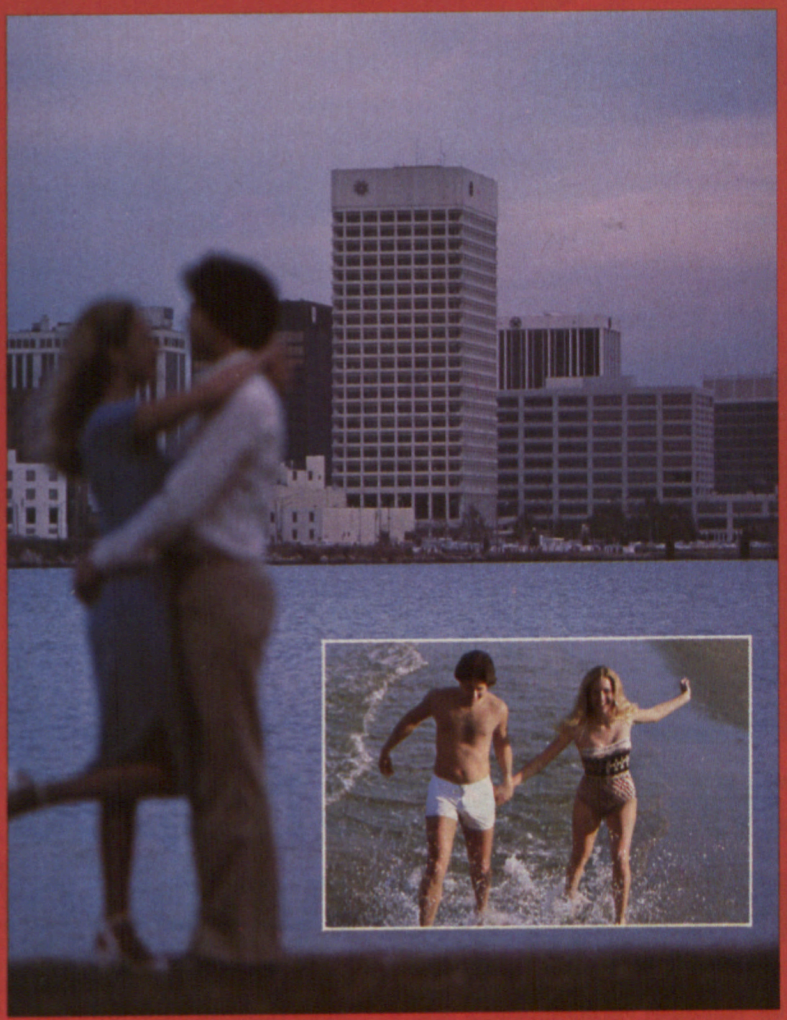

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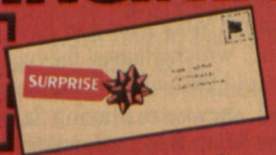

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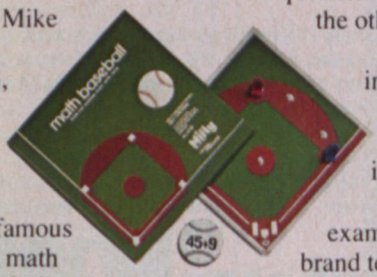

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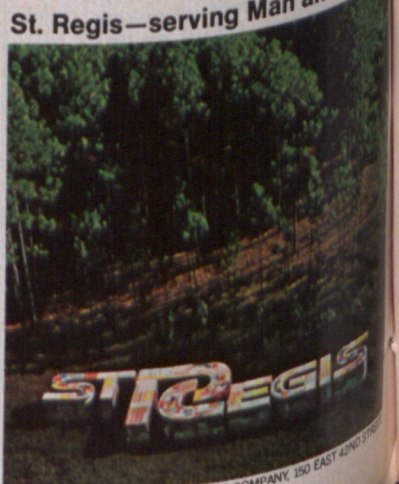

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Partners: Parents and Schools. Edited by Ronald S. Brandt. Series of articles in which the authors review some premises and practices of parent participation in the schools, report on parents' perceptions of the curriculum and the school, examine the constitutional and legal basis of the parent role for power sharing, and suggest ways that parents and schools might have a more productive relationship. Stock No. 611-79168. 1979. 88 pp. $4.75 (orders under $10 must be prepaid). Assn. for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 225 N. Washington St., Alexandria, VA 22314.

Research Within Reach: A Research-Guided Response to Concerns of Reading Educators. Phyllis Weaver with Fredi Shonkoff. Produced by the Research and Development Interpretation Service and funded by the National Institute of Education. Answers questions posed by teachers, supervisors, and administrators. Designed to help educators understand the role research can play in improving reading instruction and to help researchers understand what practitioners need to know. 1978. 134 pp. $4.50. Intl. Reading Assn., 800 Barksdale Rd., Newark, DE 19711.

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Today's Education is a member of the Educational Press Association and the Magazine Publishers Association. It is indexed in *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, Education Index,* and *Current Index to Journals in Education.*

Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

A sign hangs at the entrance to a northern Florida village. It says, "This town is a bird sanctuary."

Perhaps other towns could become bird or wildlife sanctuaries if their schools led the way. Science classes could tackle the project through several activities: writing letters, interviewing authorities, speaking to civic groups, making posters. Not the least important would be learning about local wildlife—finding out how to maintain existing species in the area and how to encourage new ones to come around.

Could sales of annual "sanctuary memberships" raise enough funds for birdbaths, feeders, food, and whatever else is necessary? If any schools try this, please let us know the results.

The Newport News, Virginia, public schools hold an annual Reading Fair, usually in a shopping mall, where up to 24,000 members of the community have attended. According to Martha S. Rourke, an assistant elementary school principal, about 150 psychologists, reading consultants, librarians, city officials, school personnel, and students assist in putting on the Fair. For those interested in staging a similar event, Dr. Rourke has the following suggestions:

1. Enlist city and school officials to read stories aloud in a "story corner"—some cozy, carpeted, out-of-the-way spot.

2. Have attractive booths where reading consultants, speech therapists, and school psychologists can tell parents about their work and its relationship to reading.

3. Have classroom teachers on hand to explain reading aids—games, sound and visual lessons—and to recommend books for students' leisure reading. Have materials available for audience participation.

4. Ask undergraduates in education to demonstrate to parents how to make reading aids their children can use at home.

5. Have elementary and high school students display their reading-related artwork and craftwork and write and present plays for those who attend the Reading Fair.

6. Have a Book Fair within the Reading Fair. Display and sell books that gain the interest of children of all ages.

7. Invite the local literacy council; library association; and local affiliates of such national organizations as the PTA, the American Association of University Women, and the International Reading Association to provide displays.

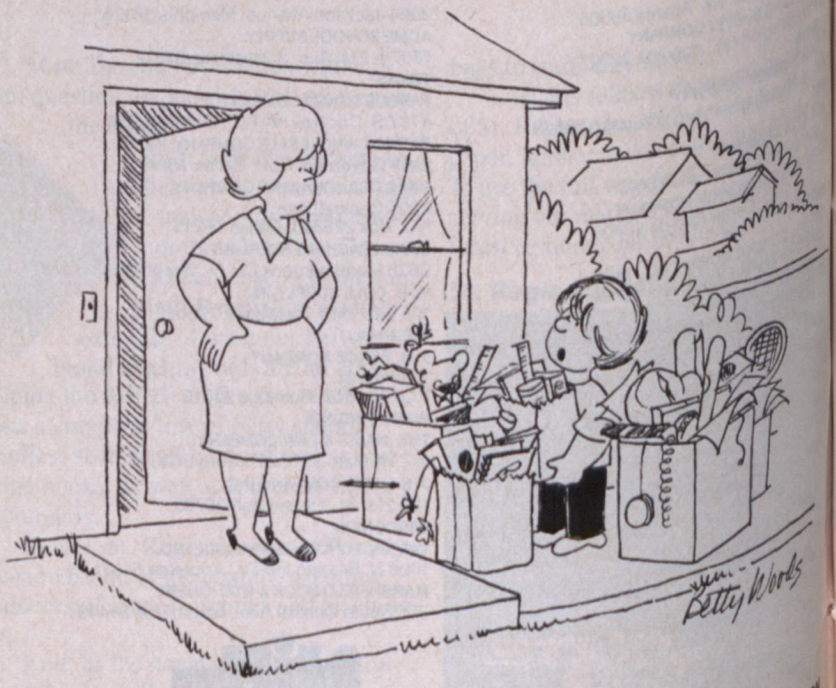
8. Use all possible media for publicity both before and after the event. At the Fair itself, put up large banners that will attract attention and have students dressed as storybook characters hand out materials explaining the purpose of the Fair.

9. Send thank-yous to everyone who contributes to the success of the Fair.

Edward W. Muench, a teacher in Toms River, New Jersey, suggests that students use classroom sets of the local newspaper for the following activities:

- Going on imaginary shopping trips among the advertisements and keeping track of the money they spend
- Discovering the main idea of stories
- Identifying (and then underlining) words and phrases in articles that show bias on the part of the reporter
- Identifying (and then circling) words in advertisements that appeal to the senses
- Analyzing the purposes of articles (Are they meant to inform, advise, help, entertain?)
- Underlining words in the comic strips they don't understand. (Comics are very sophisticated these days, what with the political satire in "Doonesbury" and the occasional French lesson in "Peanuts.")
- Dramatizing the comic strips
- Using a map to locate places mentioned in newspaper stories.

Muench believes that local papers



"I cleaned out my desk at school."

have great appeal to students because youngsters enjoy reading about people they know who participate in community athletic leagues, the Four-H Club, etc.

Muench suggests that readers who want more ideas about how to use newspapers in the classroom write to Judy Hines, Director, American Newspaper Publishers Association Foundation, P.O. Box 17407, Dulles International Airport, Washington, DC 20041.

Patricia E. Cromwell of the Houston Independent School District also wanted her students to use the newspaper as an educational tool, but that was only her secondary objective. Her main objective was to encourage feelings of warmth and empathy among the students in her English classes.

A questionnaire had disclosed that the average student in her classes knew only five others in the class—even though the school's student body was small. To promote small-group activity that would be followed by productive large-group discussion, Ms. Cromwell decided on a plan that would make use of the local newspaper.

(The survey had also revealed that 82 percent of the students lived in families that subscribed to a newspaper and that the students devoted almost 15 minutes a day to the paper. They were likely to read the comics, sports, news, entertainment, horoscope, and advice columns, and to read them in that order.)

After Ms. Cromwell explained her objectives, the students decided to draw numbers and form groups of six or seven. They further specified that each group member should be able to speak without fear of ridicule, and they agreed to try to learn about each other's needs and interests.

Daily for 10 days, each group received three copies of the Houston *Post*. After 15 minutes of silent reading, students discussed articles they found interesting.

Each group member chose and completed an activity from Zenobia Verner's *Newsbook* (Clayton, 1978). Each group originated and executed a special project, e.g., a "Who We Are" booklet or a "live" newscast, which it presented to the entire class.

At the end of the 10 days, a follow-up assessment of students' newspaper reading practices at home revealed that students were spending relatively more time on the news. A similar follow-up on student relationships showed a modest improvement in classroom climate. □

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Letters

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The Tibbettses Take Christenbury To Task

In your April-May 1979 issue, English teacher Marilyn Duff reviewed our book *What's Happening to American English*? In the September-October 1979 issue, you published a letter from another English teacher, Leila Christenbury, who said that she "could hardly pay $8.95" for a book on English teaching containing "misconceptions." She listed five of these.

Judging from her letter, Ms. Christenbury read the review carelessly and our book not at all. Now your readers think that her list of "misconceptions" reflects our beliefs about English teaching.

It does not. For example, Ms. Christenbury erroneously reports us as believing that "the study of traditional grammar helps students to write better." On the contrary. In *What's Happening to American English?* we attack directly and in detail much of what passes as traditional grammar instruction. It is often wasteful, pedantic, and irrelevant to good writing.

To English teachers (and other interested people): If you disagree with our views on English teaching, fine. Write letters to us and the professional journals. But read our book first!

—Arn *and* Charlene Tibbetts, *Department of English, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.*

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To receive an application, send a stamped, self-addressed envelope to Secondary Level Minigrants, Foundation for Exceptional Children, 1920 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091.

Completed applications must be postmarked no later than June 15, 1980.

—Don Sodo, *executive director, Foundation for Exceptional Children.*

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Books

Organization Without Authority: Dilemmas of Social Control in Free Schools by **Ann Swidler.** Harvard. 199 pp. $12.50.

It is time to analyze the counterculture of the sixties. One of its salient features was hostility to all forms of authority. This hostility led to much experimentation with organizations in which the authority principle had been abandoned. The free schools are just one instance. In this book, sociologist Ann Swidler examines two free public secondary schools located in Berkeley, California—one of them predominantly Black; the other, mainly upper-middle-class White.

What made these schools radically experimental was the fact that teachers and students were status equals. Teachers scarcely taught; instead they participated with students in projects of the students' choosing. Nor did they exercise disciplinary power. Instead students came and went as they pleased, more or less made their own rules—collectively—and determined for themselves how much as well as what kind of work they would demand of themselves. The reader gets the impression that the level of disorder in the schools was frequently high but that it fell far short of chaos.

Willingly deprived of authority, teachers relied on other resources to influence students in what they thought were desirable directions. Some were charismatic. All made use of their private personalities—as teachers always do—but in these schools the ideology of "openness and honesty" seemed to require that teachers "trade" intimate revelations about themselves for some degree of student compliance with their requests. Appeals to collective solidarity and common purpose—the middle-class school saw itself as a revolutionary vanguard—also helped to mobilize organization-maintaining behavior on the part of students.

As have many other scholars, Swidler tells us that the main purpose of the hidden curriculum of both free schools and open education is learning to live effectively with the peer group. The other main goal of the curriculum—not at all hidden—is learning to do self-initiated, autonomous work.

As for the outcomes of such schools, the accumulated evidence is that their results in academic areas are the same as or, in some instances, inferior to the results of more traditional schools. There is limited evidence that they produce students with superior social skills, but none that I know of that they produce people with superior capacity to perform self-initiated, autonomous work.

Turning to the sources of the free-school movement, Swidler presents two main hypotheses. The first holds that free schools were instituted to co-opt the students of the sixties and contain the potentially disruptive effects of their rebelliousness. According to the second, these schools represented an adaptation of the work of the school to the work patterns typical of highly educated people in a late industrial society.

In the latter view, free schools are important because their organization points to the future organization of prestigious work in a society increasingly dependent on new knowledge. Perhaps the trouble with this explanation is that in such work organizations, authority is based exclusively on expertise. In free schools, however, teachers forego even this kind of authority, leaving the school with no reason for being.

A short review cannot do justice to the complexity and insightfulness of Swidler's analysis. For anyone who wants to understand the free-school movement rather than moralize about it, this is an immensely clarifying essay.

Reviewed by **Leila Sussmann,** *professor of sociology, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts; author of* Tales Out of School: Implementing Change in the Elementary Grades.

Summer Learning and the Effects of Schooling by **Barbara Heyns.** Academic Press. 326 pp. $21.

Barbara Heyns has written a lengthy report on a study she made of the effects of summer school on the "cognitive growth" of children in a sample of schools in one school system. The subject is worth pursuing. For one thing, the traditional summer vacation is increasingly looked on as an anachronism. If it were to become clear, therefore, that summer school made important contributions to student learning—particularly to the learning of those who appear to have difficulties—that would be all to the good.

But Heyns's findings do not respon
with much confidence to that issue or t
anything else germane to the objective
of American education. Studies of the
effects of summer school (or any other
mechanism) on learning are not likely t
be very productive unless the investiga
tors make explicit their assumptions
about the following issues:

- The objectives of American school
in promoting cognitive learning
- The best instructional strategies fo
accomplishing these objectives
- The best ways of assessing
achievement of these objectives
- Acceptable levels of cognitiv
achievement.

On this last question, Heyns woul
likely respond that grade equivalency
which was her criterion, represents a
acceptable level of achievement. But
here the key question should be, How
useful is the index of grade equivalen
cy?

As with summer vacations, it is be
coming increasingly clear that the
graded school is an anachronism. How
packaging education in 10-month par
cels is better than in 6- or 4- or 14-
month parcels has never been demon
strated. Also, the idea that learning,
cognitive or any other kind, is linear and
can be "temporally" determined with
confidence is just not supportable. Even
worse, Heyns shreds the year's growth
in-a-year criterion into months, even
weeks. At one point she actually reports
a statistic of just two weeks' cognitive
growth!

Since the criterion for growth in he
study is the score on one of nine subt
tests of an achievement test, the re
ported "growth" is likely to be based on
schooling that lasted no more than a
couple of hours. When, in addition, one
takes into account that a change in the
answers to only two or three items on a
standardized test can move a student's
score 10 or more percentage points,
one gets the impression that Heyns's
manipulation of "metrics" is analogous
to researching the last half hour of the
Renaissance.

As if the misguided use of grade
equivalents weren't enough, the particu
ular subtest that she chose makes the
whole effort at measuring cognitive
growth ludicrous. For reasons she tries
unsatisfactorily to justify, Heyns has
used as the criterion of learning the

vocabulary subtest of the Metropolitan Achievement Test. If ever there was a supreme example of a test that reduces children's cognitive growth to a simplistic monolith, this must be it. It would be bad enough to use an entire standardized test for that purpose. To make a bad process worse, however, she has compared loss of vocabulary (based on the subtest items) over the summer vacation for White and Black students and concluded that Black students have greater learning losses than Whites. What an opportunity for truth-in-testing, were it available, to expose the content of tests that lead to this sorry state of affairs. Both the teaching profession and the public should find it highly instructive to examine the vocabulary items used as an analog in this flimsy comparison of what is called cognitive growth.

Heyns would have done well to be guided by her own caveat: "In order to infer patterns of learning from standardized achievement tests, many of the commonsense notions about what constitutes learning must be held in abeyance."

A number of significant and essential "commonsense notions," had they *not* been held in abeyance, would have advised her not to proceed—at least not with the research model employed. It's a shame, too, that she went ahead, because Heyns concludes that schools do make a difference in student achievement even when socioeconomic status is controlled. Another voice in support is always helpful on this point, although many of us have all along known it to be true. We have been aware of both the poor instrumentation and the poor methodolgy of, for example, the Coleman studies that concluded the contrary. What we don't need is equally poor instrumentation and methodology to refute Coleman. And that is what the Heyns study seems to have succeeded in bringing together.

The dust jacket says *Summer Learning* is likely to become a classic in the field. I think not, and I hope not. If this were a classic, it would indicate that the status of research on learning and the effects of schooling is infinitely more primitive than I am willing to accept.

Reviewed by **Bernard McKenna,** *senior professional associate, NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

Empty Pages: A Search for Writing Competency in School and Society by **Clifton Fadiman** and **James Howard.**

(continued on page 82)

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Books
(continued)

Fearon-Pitman. 176 pp. $7.95; paper, $5.95.

This book deserves to be read *widely*. I emphasize widely, for the title of the book and the general assumption that writing is the province of English teachers are likely to result in a somewhat limited audience for this work. That would be unfortunate. While the authors do indeed have an important message for teachers of English, they address much of this book to educators of all disciplines.

In seven chapters, the authors take a calm and reasoned look at the decline in writing competency and the causes for that decline. They consider the cases for and against attacking the problem and suggest ways in which the trend can be reversed. Finally, they cite some exemplary programs now in operation.

The calm and logical approach of the writers, together with their avoidance of jargon, is refreshing. They do not inflate the problem nor do they attempt to minimize it. They face the difficulties of improving writing honestly.

In suggesting possible "solutions," the authors offer no panaceas nor do they suggest that an immediate recovery is at hand if educators will but follow their dicta. They do insist, however, that anyone who is not mentally handicapped can be taught to become a competent writer.

In the program envisioned in this book, every teacher becomes a teacher of writing—and that does not mean just an "assigner" of writing. The authors recognize that most teachers, including English teachers, have not been taught to teach writing and, further, that many of them are neither competent writers themselves nor prepared to teach their students to become competent writers.

If a teaching staff is to commit itself to the goals the authors present, administrators must strongly support efforts to reach those goals and teachers must have meaningful, continuing in-service programs. One of the basic assumptions of the authors is that "all teachers (and even administrators) are or should be, even if not primarily, teachers of English and therefore, to some degree, of writing."

The authors give brief but significant consideration to two aspects of writing that are often overlooked. First, they recognize that learning to write will inevitably involve writing to learn. Second, they assume that "clear and effective writing is not simply a skill or a socio-economic advantage. Because it expresses the integrity (or dishonesty) of an intellectual process, it is a moral activity."

No doubt each reader will find statements with which to take strong exception or areas that the authors seem to gloss over or treat superficially. In spite of this, or perhaps because of this, the book is well worth reading. Too many books require nothing more than passive reading; this one invites reaction and action.

Reviewed by **Ruth D. Hallman,** *chair, English Department, Walter E. Stebbins High School, Mad River Township, Ohio.*

Rites of Fall: High School Football in Texas. Photographs by **Geoff Winningham.** Text by **Al Reinert.** Commentary by **Don Meredith.** 176 pp. University of Texas Press. $24.95; paperback, $14.95.

High School: U.S.A. by **Jim Richardson.** St. Martin's Press. 187 pp. $19.95; paperback, $8.95.

Rites of Fall and *High School: U.S.A.* are both picture books, with lots of full-page black-and-white photographs that depict (mostly) small town life in Texas and Kansas respectively. Winningham's Texas photographs, almost entirely of activity on or near the football field, are of very high quality; his sense of timing is superb. *High School: U.S.A.*, though it has plenty of football scenes, is organized like a high school yearbook and follows the class of 1979 through their senior year. Comments made by members of the class provide the picture captions; they give a youthful and emotional aura to the collection of photographs.

Obviously, neither volume is aimed at the school market. Both books are likely, however, to have special appeal to high school faculty and students. *High School: U.S.A.* will, for one thing, make its adult readers nostalgic for their own high school days. *Rites of Fall*, in addition to documenting the importance of football to the high school community, also demonstrates to budding photographers the value of anticipating—and waiting for—the right moment to make a shot.

Reviewed by **Lee Moyne Mark,** *photography teacher, Pasadena (California) High School. Mark is a recent winner of the National Photography Instructors Association's award for outstanding teaching of photography.*

OUTDOOR EDUCATION
(continued from page 55)

summer, 10 members of the Orinda Connection went river rafting down the Stanislaus River with ETC. About half the group had been on the Yosemite trip; the others in this group had been too disabled to go to Yosemite. For example, Laura, a 16-year-old with cerebral palsy, has no use of her arms and legs and cannot speak. She communicates by looking at one letter after another on a conversation board and by giving other eye signals. The seven-person ETC crew found ways to have Laura participate in the activities. For example, during a game of beach tag, one of them would carry Laura, and they would play as partners.

Before the trip, the group met to plan their menus and to buy food for the trip. Once on the trip, they cooked, served meals, and cleaned up. When the group stopped at a place where there was a rope swing, all who were mobile shakily climbed the tree and swung out on the rope. I remember yelling, "Pam, can you swim?" Luckily, she could. Again, as in Yosemite, the students were allowed to take risks and responsibilities that had long been denied to them.

In the past few years, I have seen attitudes toward the handicapped change at my school. Regular teachers are not as frightened of having handicapped students in their classes as they once were. Nonhandicapped and handicapped students communicate more freely than they did before. Counselors, the psychologist, special teachers, and the language therapist give their support to the disabled and their classroom teachers. All these professionals expect disabled students to develop academically and socially.

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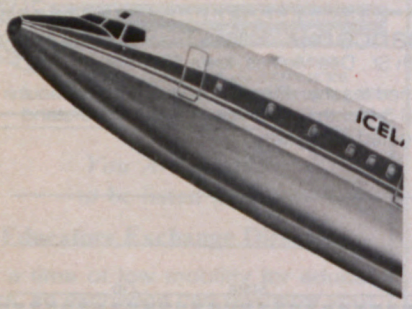

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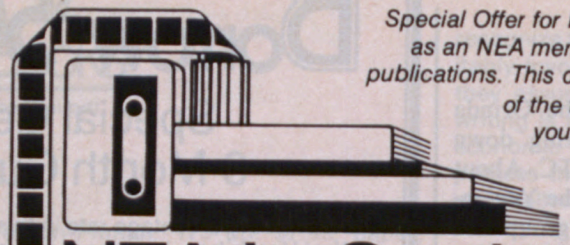

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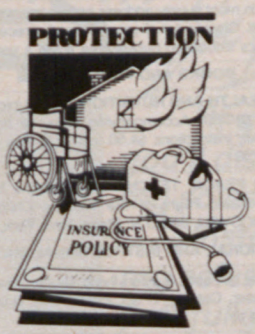

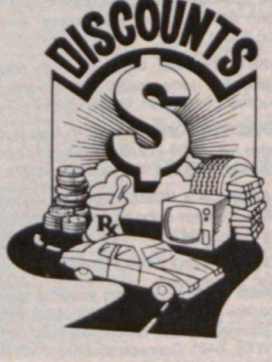

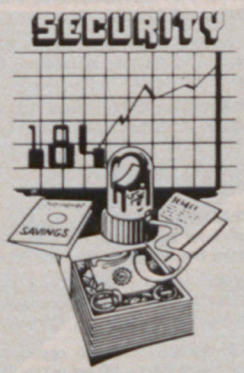

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